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ABSTRACT

This collection of papers resulted from a series of retreats, seminars, and colloquia held to help the Oklahoma State University Dean's Grant project increase involvement among regular education faculty in the education of handicapped children and youth. The series also sought to generate an increased level of coordination and communication among the departments and programs in the College of Education about the educational needs of mainstreamed students. The first paper outlines knowledge, skills, and commitments which are essential to teachers working in a mainstreamed classroom. In the second paper, the need for higher professional standards in the teaching profession is examined in the light of new demands for educational accountability. Issues which have been raised by laws designed to protect the handicapped and selected cases which have been brought to court are examined in the third paper. The fourth paper presents an overview of safe and convenient school facilities to accommodate the handicapped. Selected books for students from kindergarten through the sixth grade that deal with the handicaps of mainstreamed children are reviewed in the fifth paper. The sixth paper raises the question of fairness in testing disabled children and their placement in school. The final paper points out the difficulties and needs in a multicultural approach dealing with handicapped children in ethnic minorities. (JD)

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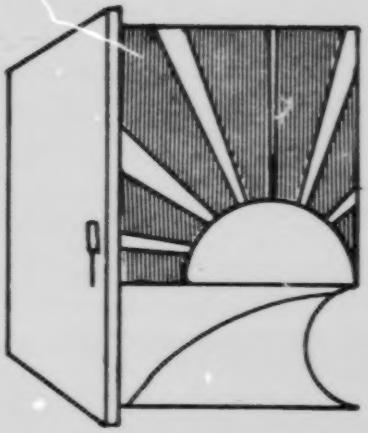

OPENING MANY DOORS

A Collection of Colloquia Papers

DEAN'S GRANT

Volume I, 1979—1980

Edited By
Donald W. Robinson
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VOLUME I

PREFACE

The Dean's Grant project, which relates to the implementation of P.L. 94-142 and mainstreaming, is funded through the Bureau of Special Education, Department of Education. Although there are many historical antecedents, the more recent evolution of P.L. 94-142 and mainstreaming can be traced at least from the Kennedy election and the President's personal interest in educating the handicapped. There are also some suggestions that this movement is simply a logical extension of our whole civil rights movement. President Kennedy's interest led directly to the passage of the Handicapped Educational Act in 1963, which was landmark legislation, taking handicapped persons out of the closet and enabling massive funding for research and development in the field and for the training of special educators. This legislation also stimulated a great deal of activity at the National Institutes of Health, including the establishment of centers focusing on research and training in the field of mental retardation and human development.

The law also helped to make the Council for Exceptional Children (CEC), an organization of parents and educators, a very powerful advocate for the handicapped person. The CEC led the whole movement of citizen and parent activism in the area of exceptionality. The Council was especially effective in stimulating additional funding at the federal level and influencing the passage of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (Section 504) and eventually P.L. 94-142. CEC was also the catalyst that triggered greater activity at the state level, including passage in Oklahoma of a legislature-mandated course covering characteristics of the exceptional child. This course, once accepted, has become recognized as a valuable educational experience for both special and regular educators.

The Dean's Grant program can be viewed as a means through which selected colleges and departments of education (SCDEs) can plan and revise programs to assure that the next generation of teachers are equipped to handle the pressures and challenges of providing the best education possible for the handicapped in the most appropriate school environment and to assist in the mandate demanding the best possible education for all people. Nationally, the Deans' Grants movement continues to grow. In 1980-81, there are 141 projects. The OSU project is funded for three years and was preceded by a small planning grant. It is currently the only such project in the state, and consequently, an attempt is made to disseminate results of project activities to all state institutions with teacher education programs.

The immediate and continuing project goal is to provide knowledge and information for faculty and teaching assistants relative to the concept of mainstreaming and the mandates of P.L. 94-142 so that they in turn will prepare regular pre-service teacher trainees to meet the challenge found in public schools. A secondary and more general goal is to provide a vehicle and resources to the college to review our courses, curricula, and programs. The Dean's Grant is also a basic link in a process of faculty development--a means of providing enrichment activities for faculty that will be reflected in their professional development.

The volume of papers grew out of activities designed to help the OSU Dean's Grant project reach two of its stated goals:

1. To increase involvement among regular education faculty in education of handicapped children and youth;
2. To generate an increased level of coordination and communication among the departments and programs in the College of Education, relative to meeting the educational needs of handicapped students in regular classrooms.

A series of retreats, seminars, and colloquia was established to encourage the development of a greater understanding of the handicapped and to foster discussions concerning issues in teacher training. This volume was not designed to have a single theme, nor was it designed as a showcase for formal papers only. Rather it reflects recorded and transcribed presentations as well as formal papers written by OSU faculty and visiting consultants. However, a single theme does emerge, and that theme can be described as providing better services for the handicapped, and all students, through better preparation (see Howsam), through better understanding of civil rights (see Selakovich), through removal of architectural and attitudinal barriers (see James, and Bauer) and through development of a pluralistic attitude toward assessment and learning (see Warden, and Dillard, Kinnison and Peel). In closing, it can be stated that the essential thrust of P.L. 94-142 is not simply a passing fancy as some administrators, parents, teachers, and teacher educators would suggest or hope. It is not another fad that will atrophy if it is ignored. It is here to stay. There is simply too much power, organization, and belief in the essential rightness of the movement to allow it to be suppressed or ignored. SCDEs have been charged with the responsibility of preparing teachers and other educators to function in the environment of the schools as they exist today, and of preparing them, given the mandates of P.L. 94-142, to deal effectively, confidently, and humanely with all children and all youth in their classes in the future. It is clear that the papers presented in this volume reflect the acceptance of that charge by the faculty of the College of Education, Oklahoma State University.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The development of this volume has been possible due to the dedication and efforts of many people. Their support and enthusiasm for the basic concepts of the project have been vital elements in its completion.

We are indebted to the following speakers and writers for contributing the papers for this volume: Carolyn Bauer, John Dillard, Robert Howsam, Waynne James, Lloyd Kinnison, Barbara Peel, Daniel Selakovich and Paul Warden.

Appreciation is also extended to the members of the Dean's Project Advisory Committee for their expenditure of time and effort during the past year: Douglas Aichele, Kay Bull, Bob Davis, Cecil Dugger, Bill Elsom, Kent Grant, Steve Grissom, William Hodges, Thomas Johnsten, Thomas Karman, Imogene Land, Kenneth McKinley, Marleen Harris, Kenneth Stern, Kenneth St. Clair, Lloyd L. Wiggins, Margaret Wiggins and David Yellin.

Special thanks are also due to Connie Lawry and Debbie Miller for their involvement in the preparation of this volume and to Bruce Petty for his preparation of the graphics.

Our gratitude goes to Maynard Reynolds and the National Support Systems Project, Minneapolis, Minnesota, for continuing support and encouragement.

The College of Education through the Dean's Grant colloquia attempts to provide a forum for faculty members to express divergent viewpoints on mainstreaming. These colloquia allow for professional interaction without assuming the endorsement of the College of Education or the Bureau of Special Education.

A Common Body of Practice for Teachers:

The Challenge of Public Law 94-142 to Teacher Education[1]

Maynard C. Reynolds

Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, has created a new set of conditions under which teachers must function and which must be addressed by teacher education. Attempts to implement the law already have revealed in practice what was evident and predictable in advance: The level of professional preparation simply is not adequate for the new conditions. The challenge they present could be the opportunity long sought by many educators to bring the teaching profession to maturity and into its own. Never before has there been such a pervasive force buttressing the arguments for quality teacher education. The opportunity should not be lost. Nor should Public Law 94-142 be lost for want of teaching personnel adequately prepared to achieve its intent.

This paper evolved, in the main, out of the experiences of the Deans' Grants Projects, which are supported by the Bureau of Education for the

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[1] Five persons who have been deeply involved in recent efforts for changes in teacher education in relation to Public Law 94-142 met to draft a set of statements from which the present paper has been abstracted. They are Jack W. Birch, Dawn Grohs, Robert Howsam, Catherine Morsink and Maynard Reynolds. All of these individuals have been associated with the Deans' Grants Projects which are supported by the Bureau of Special Education; several have also been involved in related projects supported by Teacher Corps and the Bureau for Educational Personnel Development. The first and second drafts were criticized by "regional liaisons" associated with the National Support Systems Project, including Percy Bates, Dean Corrigan, Robert Gilberts, Harold Mitzel, Bert Sharp, and Bob Woods. A third draft version of the paper was submitted for formal criticism to leaders of parent organizations concerned with children who are handicapped. The third draft was also discussed broadly by representatives of about 80 Deans' Grant Projects in a national meeting held in May 1979. The present version represents an attempt to take account of all earlier criticisms and discussion.

Handicapped, U.S. Office of Education, for the purpose of redesigning teacher education to accord with the principles of Public Law 94-142. Only deans of education or other administrators who carry broad responsibilities for pre-service teacher-preparation programs have been eligible for these grants. The central focus has been the renewal of preparation programs for so-called "regular" teachers. In this paper, the concern is for all teachers but its special focus is on the large task of upgrading the preparation for "regular" teachers.

The three parts of the paper are as follows:

1. An introductory statement on Public Law 94-142, its historic significance, and its challenge to teacher education.
2. A substantive discussion of and recommendations for competency clusters or domains which are derived from Public Law 94-142 and which define a common core of requirements or a "professional culture" for all teachers.
3. An outline of a model for teacher education and a detailing of the "competency clusters" in a form which can be used to evaluate and plan efforts to improve teacher education.

In the main, this paper outlines knowledges, skills, and commitments which are essential to teachers. It does not discuss creative-intuitive processes which are so essential to teaching. This omission is not intended to suggest that teaching is a totally calculated scientific process; the subject matter treated is simply limited in scope.

As work goes forward in preparing personnel to work under the conditions imposed by Public Law 94-142, it will be necessary to take account of other significant current forces for change in teacher preparation. For example, it will be particularly important to coordinate the work proceeding on behalf of handicapped students with the efforts on behalf of racial minorities and ethnic groups. In the past organization of the schools, the segregation of children on the basis of race and handicap was intertwined; excessive numbers of children from minority group families were labeled as handicapped and placed in isolated special classes and schools. Solutions to the problems will require broad and coordinated efforts for change. Although this paper deals mainly with handicapped and gifted students, it is intended to be used as one part of a broader effort for the reform and improvement of teacher preparation.

The Impact on Teacher Education of Public Law 94-142

During the decade of the 1970s, the Congress of the United States enacted two pieces of legislation that, together, open wide to handicapped persons the opportunity to participate more fully in the mainstream of American education. They are Section 504 of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973 and Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975. Section 504 authorized vocational training in mainstream settings for handicapped persons, the promotion and expansion of employment opportunities for them, and the removal of all architectural and transportation barriers that impede handicapped persons. Public Law 94-142 mandates equal educational opportunity for all handicapped children, free and appropriate education, placement in regular public school settings with their nonhandicapped peers to the extent that it is feasible, cooperatively written individualized educational plans, provision of special education and related services as needed, and observance of handicapped children's and their parents' due process rights.

Public Law 94-142 represents one of the most significant commitments ever made in American public education. From the Common Schools Act of 1641, which provided basic schooling for all children who sought it out, society has moved to guarantee access to appropriate, individualized education to each handicapped child, regardless of the extent of his handicap. Many children affected by the law are also gifted and talented. Moreover, several states already have acted to bring all their gifted and talented students under legal provisions equivalent to those of Public Law 94-142. It takes little imagination to project the extension of the new policies and procedures to all children; it can only be a matter of time.

Although legislation and court orders are powerful forces for change in our society, they do not by themselves effect change. Institutions are altered by community support, resources, and people, and the effectiveness of the change efforts can be no greater than the weakest component. Public Law 94-142 itself is prima facie evidence of community support and its funding provisions offer a substantial part of the necessary resources. It is too early to tell whether the Congress will fully fund programs under Public Law 94-142; if supports fall far short of early projections, the messages about community support will be clear.

Like other social institutions, education provides a system for the delivery of services to members of society and the personnel to perform the services. It seems reasonable to assume that given adequate resources, the delivery system can be altered to accord with the intent and provisions of Public Law 94-142. Less certain by far is the present capacity of the personnel to meet the demands of a new delivery system.

Teachers, in general, have not had the kind and level of preparation that is necessary for dealing within regular school settings with the full range of differences found among the total population of children. It was in response to this fact, in part at least, that special classes for handicapped children proliferated over the years. Recent years have seen dramatic changes in the school situations within which teachers function. For the most part, the changes have made teaching more challenging and difficult. However, the changes have not been reflected in teacher preparation; it has remained largely unchanged both in form and substance.

It can be stated with confidence that the goals of Public Law 94-142 will be realized only if the quality of teacher preparation and professional service in the schools can be improved. High priority must be given to substantial if not massive upgrading and retooling of the programs that prepare teachers for entry into the profession and facilitate their continuing professional development through a lifetime of service.

Teacher preparation in America has never been optimal; it always has been minimal. The level of professional expertise developed in preparation programs is far below that needed for effectiveness even in the most favorable teaching situations. It is disastrously inadequate for meeting the challenges of a delivery system in which children with handicapping conditions share learning environments with the nonhandicapped school population.

To draw firm distinctions between handicap and nonhandicap is, of course, a mistake. Conditions that impede effective learning are widespread throughout the entire school population. "Handicap," in the official sense, is but a more obvious and, perhaps, more severe condition that tests the adequacy of the instructional system and reveals the weaknesses that are present but obscured when the students who require the highest levels of professional competency are selectively removed. All students require professional teachers who have the capacity to so manage the processes of individualized learning that the development of educationally handicapping conditions is prevented, extant handicaps are eliminated or minimized where possible, and learning is optimized, whatever the conditions.

The mandate to mainstream handicapped children has thrust upon schools and teachers new demands for which neither has been adequately prepared. Needed are both short- and long-term programs which are designed to develop the capacity of both systems and teachers to deliver on the intent and promises of Public Law 94-142. Adequate solutions call for a complete redevelopment of teacher preparation.[2]

A Common Body of Practice Derived from Public Law 94-142

Established professions are characterized by bodies of knowledge and practice which are held in common by members. When individuals carry the designations of doctor, lawyer, or minister, the public generally knows what services each can be expected to provide competently. Howsam, Corrigan, Denemark, and Nash (1976) used the term "professional culture"[3] to designate the knowledge, skills, behaviors, attitudes, and values that make up the collective basis for practice and decision making by members of a profession. They lamented the absence of such a culture among teachers and deplored the reality that teachers have yet to establish for themselves a professional body of knowledge or set of professional behaviors that are common to all.

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[2] In the balance of this paper, references to "teachers" signify all teachers: those in kindergartens and elementary, secondary, and vocational-technical schools; teachers of the handicapped; and teachers of music, art, physical education, and chemistry--literally, all teachers. Not included are other school employees, such as school psychologists and speech-language pathologists, although occasionally they are included by specific reference.

[3] Professional culture--the totality of transmitted behavior patterns, arts, beliefs, knowledge, skills, and all other products of work and thought characteristic of the teaching profession (paraphrased from American Heritage Dictionary).

> ... the teaching profession is characterized by lack of a common body of knowledge and repertoire of behaviors and skills needed in the practice of the profession. . . . Teachers do not possess a common body of professionally validated knowledge and skills which is transmitted in the process of professional socialization, held in common with other teachers thereafter, and constantly increased through the career span of the teachers. (pp. 10-11)
>
> In the absence of agreement on the substance of the professional culture needed by the teaching profession, there can be no agreed-upon performance standards either for admission to, or continuance in, the profession. (p. 12)
>
> *Since so many aspects of professional realization depend upon the relative absence of a professional culture in teaching practice, it must be seen as the most critical factor in the professional status of teaching*. Little progress will be made until educators develop and use a body of recognized professional expertise. Unfortunately, neither teachers in service nor teacher educators [have yet reached] consensus on the development of appropriate technical skills which all teachers should master. (p. 13)
>
> Realistically, ... teaching ... is becoming more professional, but it is hollow without an accompanying professional culture. (p. 15)

The development of a professional culture is certainly a matter of central importance if teaching is to be recognized as an established profession.

To date, the nearest educators have come to agreement on a common core for the professional preparation of teachers has been the content of certain foundational subjects: usually, history of education, philosophy of education, and educational psychology. These subjects provide an understanding of education and a framework in which to practice but they do not prepare anyone to "practice" education. They are much needed and should be linked closely to studies relating more directly to practice, but in themselves they fall far short of supplying anything comparable to the common body of professional knowledge, skills, behaviors, attitudes, and values that characterize an established profession.

Consequently, it is suggested here that upon this theoretical-historical foundation there be constructed the body of knowledge, skill, and practice which is essential to the professional culture of teaching and which will prepare students to function as teaching professionals within the context of social mandates. The contents of the knowledge, skills, and practice would be derived, in significant part, from the intent of the mandates to assure equality of educational opportunity for all handicapped, disadvantaged, and other minority group children, as provided in Public Law 94-142 and other recent laws and adjudications.

A salient feature of these requirements, which reflects the current social philosophy of education, is the individualization of educational programs for children with special needs. Public Law 94-142, for example, provides for an individual educational program (IEP) to be written at least annually for each pupil by a committee of relevant personnel (including the child's parent[s]), a program that spells out what is to be taught, by whom, how it is to be taught, and how the success of the program will be judged.

The development and implementation of the individualized educational program is of far greater import than following certain procedures and using a few learned techniques. Based as it is on the concept of optimal individual development, it demands of teachers broad knowledge and refined abilities to assess and treat the range of children's educational needs. The fundamental nature of the individualized educational program, consequently, provides a natural focus for the development of a professional culture that can be acquired by all teachers and that can be recognized by society as evidencing functions which educators can be expected to perform with the proficiency of professionals.

At present, the individualized educational program or IEP is conceived of as the basic educational management tool for handicapped and gifted[4] children. It must be anticipated that this requirement, as a matter of equal rights, will be extended to all children. It provides the means of adapting general educational goals and methods to individual needs and abilities. This is not to say that each pupil will be taught separately but, rather, that the style and rate of learning and strengths and weaknesses of each pupil will be recognized and respected. The public nature of IEPs--that is, the requirement that the IEP be planned and written by a team consisting of school personnel, the pupil (when feasible), and the pupil's parent(s) or guardian, and that the effectiveness of the IEP be reviewed periodically--makes teachers accountable for the first time for the application of proper instructional procedures under appropriate conditions.

To achieve the individualization of education for pupils requires that school systems provide various resources which teachers can muster and use effectively. These resources should include, at the minimum, a reasonably adequate supply of differentiated instructional materials; appropriate facilities and space in which to employ the materials; access to consultation with and technical support from specialists, adequate preparation time, and, for at least part of each day, the assistance of teachers' aides. School systems are derelict if they do not supply these resources; it would be tantamount to expecting surgeons, for example, to function effectively without operating rooms, nursing assistance, or proper instruments.

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[4] In several states the IEP procedure is required for gifted as well as handicapped students, even though the federal law, Public Law 94-142, refers only to those who are handicapped.

If we assume, however, that the essential resources are available, then it is possible to identify the clusters of capabilities which teachers and other specialists need to plan, prepare, and execute productive IEPs. These clusters can be viewed as the essential components of the professional culture, the professional behaviors that the public can expect all teachers to be able to perform at a safe and competent level.

It is highly significant that although the discussions began around concerns for students with handicaps and Public Law 94-142, the competency clusters which were derived are quite general and have implications for all students.

Clusters of Capabilities

The following ten clusters were extracted from broad discussions and experiences relating to the implementation of training programs for teachers who are engaged in meeting the new requirements of Public Law 94-142. The clusters are not intended to be complete or mutually exclusive. They are not presented in a systematic sequence and they are not offered as competency statements in the sense of "competency-based" instruction; they are both more discursive and less detailed in phrasing than competency statements should be. At this stage, the clusters simply provide a convenient map of the domains of professional competence that appear to be important to every teacher who participates in the design and implementation of individualized instruction.

1. Curriculum (i.e., what is deliberately taught in school)

It is clear that the addition of handicapped youngsters to regular classrooms increases the breadth and variety of students' learning needs and skills. This greater spread of abilities, in turn, creates a major demand for curriculum that treats subject matter with fewer assumptions about prior learnings and previously acquired skills. Teachers have been working hard over the past century to make their classes more homogeneous and curriculum materials correspondingly homogeneous. IEPs and the increasing presence of handicapped students in classrooms turn such assumptions and trends on their heads. The heart of the movement toward individualized and personalized instruction is the optimal development of each child and, therefore, assumptions and goals must be based on heterogeneity.

All teachers should have a general knowledge of the school curriculum that is offered from kindergarten through high school (K-12). Every teacher should be able to describe the curriculum content and objectives which are typical of the nation's elementary and secondary schools, and the rationale for each major curriculum element. They should be able to relate the curriculum to what is known about the development of children and youth and to the functions of schools as social institutions. They must be skilled in the preparation of individualized curricular plans for children based upon careful assessments of individual needs. These knowledges and skills are as necessary for professional educators as the knowledge of the bones and muscles of the body is for physicians, regardless of specialization.

This is not to say that everyone in education must be a specialist in reading, art, modern languages, or other specific curricular components, any more than every physician must be an expert in bone surgery or in the cellular structure of muscle tissue. Instead, it is to say that a sound general knowledge of curriculum is necessary in order that responsible planning for pupils can be done with assurance that no essential considerations are overlooked.

Recommendation:

The preparation of all teachers should include the study of and first-hand experience with curriculum principles, guides, and structure from pre-school through secondary school levels. All major subjects that are systematically taught in schools by professionals should be included. The means and procedures by which curriculum is developed, adopted, and changed should be understood and there should be practice in designing and modifying curriculum and materials, especially to suit the individual needs of students.

2. Teaching Basic Skills

All teachers should be able to teach the basic skills effectively. These skills fall into three main categories: literacy, life maintenance, and personal development. They also need preparation for co-teaching and other forms of collaborative work with specialists who are called upon to provide intensive help in basic skills for selected students.

Literacy skills are those for which the school has primary responsibility and which are necessary to continued learning as well as to efficient performance in most work situations. They include *reading*, which all teachers should be able to teach to at least fifth-grade level (word attack, word recognition, comprehension, and rate), *writing* (letter formation, sentence structure, and paragraph structure), *spelling* (rules and exceptions), *arithmetic* (whole-number computation, simple fractions, time, and measurement applications), study (use of resources, critical thinking, and organizing data), and speaking (sending and receiving accurate verbal messages, expression, and intonation).

It might be argued that only teachers of the elementary grades need to be prepared as teachers of reading and undoubtedly such teachers do need to have very strong preparation in reading instruction. However, the intention here is to make the case that literally all teachers, including those at secondary and vocational levels, need to understand processes of teaching reading at basic levels. All teachers need to assist their students in developing better reading skills; they need to choose reading materials appropriately, to set goals for reading carefully, and to work with specialists in reading knowledgeably.

Life maintenance skills are those necessary for survival and effective functioning in society. Sometimes referred to as survival or life skills, they include health (personal hygiene and nutrition), safety (danger signs, maneuvering in traffic, and home safety), consumerism (making purchases, making change, and comparative shopping), and law (human rights, appeal process, court system, and personal liability).

Personal development skills are necessary for self-actualization. Teachers should be able to exemplify a high sense of identity and personal integration for their students. Since all individuals struggle with values, philosophical positions, moral behavior and basic life issues, teachers should provide mature models for their students in these domains. They should be prepared to assist students in processes of goal setting, decision-making, problem-solving and conflict resolution, in both intra- and interpersonal dimensions, as aspects of their own personal development. Similarly teachers should be prepared to help students acquire good habits and skills in recreational activities and in creative approaches to both work and play. The teachers should also be able to relate their subject matter to its career implications, i.e., the several life careers in which individuals engage as members of society, including: 1) paid employment, 2) homemaking/family member, 3) avocational pursuits, and 4) involvement in civic affairs.

Recommendations:

The preparation of all teachers should include necessary elements to assure competency in teaching the basic skills (defined to include literacy, life maintenance, and personal development skills) and in collaborative practice with specialists in basic skills instruction. Instruction should be provided in teaching the skill areas as such. In addition, supervised practical experience should be provided in teaching of literacy, life maintenance, and personal development skills.

3. Class Management

All teachers should be able to apply individual and group management skills to insure a high level of positive response from pupils in instructional situations.

The skilled management of classes helps students to maintain attention to school-related learning activities and to build positive feelings about themselves, their classmates, and their schools. Teachers need to be highly effective in group-alerting techniques, management of transitions in school activities, responses to daily crises, and management of a variety of learning activities in a single setting at the same time (Borg, undated). For effective learning outcomes, time on tasks and favorable attitudes need to be maximized. Students need to learn to share increasingly in the responsibility for effective management, and helping them learn in this domain is a primary task for teachers.

All teachers should be able to apply behavioral analysis procedures (sometimes called behavior modification or contingency management procedures) and other specific methodologies to encourage both scholastic achievement and acceptable personal and social conduct, and to instruct parents and teacher aides in applying those procedures under teacher guidance.

Recommendation:

All teachers should be proficient in class management procedures, including applied behavior analysis, group alerting, guiding transitions, materials arrangement, crisis intervention techniques, and group approaches to creating positive affective climate.

4. Professional Consultation and Communications

All teachers should be proficient in consultation and other forms of professional communication, as both initiators and receivers, to establish and maintain responsible interactions with colleagues and administrators.

Teachers should be able to serve as consultants. Teachers who specialize, for instance, in working with children who have visual impairments should be able to consult with other teachers on the kinds of methods and materials that they should learn to use with visually impaired pupils in their regular classes. At the same time, all teachers should learn to be competent receivers and users of consultation.

Educators should be practiced at collaborating with colleagues who share responsibility for individual students' programs. Regular teachers and speech-language pathologists, for instance, must deliberately and planfully complement and reinforce each other's work with pupils. Readiness to function as a member of a team does not come naturally to most professionals; it must be developed through guided experience.

Teachers also need to know how to negotiate objectively and equably with colleagues, administrators, employers, and other persons when their goals, values, philosophies, or priorities differ. Matters for negotiation may range over working conditions, curriculum design, pay and benefits, materials selection, need for inservice training, and other considerations. In all these matters teachers need the ability to keep the atmosphere of the negotiations open, flexible, and free of personal conflict.

Key elements in all these interactions include a firm grounding in consultation and communications processes, the requirements of due process, and a thorough knowledge of acceptable practices regarding confidentiality. Equally essential in the process is resourcefulness in building trust relationships. In all collaborations, teachers should be encouraged to take co-equal status with all other personnel on the assumption that each participant in collaborative work is a specialist who is sharing expertise in order to create optimal school programs for individual pupils.

Recommendations:

It is essential now that all teachers have opportunities to master the knowledge and practices involved in effective consultation and other forms of professional communication. Every teacher should have instruction and practicum experience leading to assured capability in these areas as part of preservice preparation.

5. Teacher-Parent-Student Relationships

All teachers should learn skills and sensitivity in dealing with parents of their students and especially with parents and siblings of handicapped and disadvantaged students. Instruction should be provided which enhances respect for the role of the family in the nurturance and education of children. This should be extended to include a history of disenfranchised groups (e.g., handicapped, black, hispanic, native American, migrant) and knowledge of the effects of such disadvantages on families, especially on how family-school contacts might be influenced and on how parents may view teachers and other professionals. Teachers should have some training and experience in clinical approaches to suspicions, hostility, and anger; and in approaches to building trust and cooperation. They should be prepared to share teaching skills with parents, so that program elements for students can be continued in the home situation whenever that is appropriate.

Recommendation:

All teachers should have skills and sensitivity for dealing with parents and siblings of handicapped students; they should have had opportunities to practice skills in this area as part of their practicums in teacher preparation.

6. Student-Student Relationships

All teachers should be able to teach pupils how to relate to each other in ways that produce satisfaction and self-improvement. This ability should be based on counseling skills, knowledge and skill in using group activities that encourage cooperative behavior, and strong foundation studies in human development.

Peer and cross-age teaching is a specific form of constructive relationship which can be used with advantages for all participants.

Encouraging pupils to teach each other and to be helpful to one another is a complex undertaking. It offers very important learning experiences to the tutors as well as to those who are tutored. For example, a teen-age boy or girl can acquire self-confidence and personal satisfaction through helping second graders to learn to use phonic or configuration clues to unlock new or unfamiliar words; and home economics students can instruct immature children in self-help skills. Teachers can and should learn to use heterogeneous groups of pupils in work of cooperative kinds to achieve group goals.

When teachers have the prerequisite skill to take solid command of the social structure of their classes through effective teaching, they find that they have a powerful additional tool with which to construct individualized learning situations.

Recommendations:

All teachers should be able to convey to students the attitude that they bear some of the responsibility for their social environment and must be willing to help one another. Also, teachers need to be prepared to manage the social structure of their classes by generating cooperative, mutually helpful behavior among the students. Teachers need specific insights into and skills for developing heterogeneously cooperative grouping procedures and peer and cross-age tutoring. They also should be able to teach students to use some of the basic counseling/guidance skills in relationships with other students.

7. Exceptional Conditions

All teachers should have a knowledge of basic procedures for the instruction of students with exceptional conditions, such as limited sight or hearing, emotional problems, limited cognitive abilities, or outstanding talents and gifts, and they should be aware of the literature and body of practice in each area which can be pursued in depth when necessary--for example, when an exceptional student is enrolled in the class. They need also to be familiar with the functions of various specialists who work in the schools (e.g., psychologists, educational audiologists, school social workers, resource teachers for the visually impaired, etc.) so that they are prepared to establish teaming arrangements for the instruction of exceptional students. It is not reasonable to expect all teachers to know everything about exceptional conditions; but they should have rudimentary knowledge in all areas and know that additional help is available, how to get it, and how to use it.

Recommendations:

All prospective teachers should have preparation in understanding exceptional children, in school procedures for accommodating children's special needs, and in the functions of specialists who serve exceptional children. Moreover, hands-on experiences with the children and utilizing the help of specialists ought to be provided.

8. Referral

When a pupil or parent presents a problem which a teacher feels unable to resolve, it is not a mark of inadequacy for the teacher to refer the one or the other to a colleague. In fact, failure to make a referral in such an instance is a violation of professional ethics. Depriving a person of access to someone who can provide help is professional malpractice which may worsen a problem and cause other problems. It is important to establish the attitude that making a referral is not to transfer "ownership" of a problem to a specialist; rather it is a way of calling into one's situation a specialist who may be able to offer help.

Few teachers are so well and so broadly prepared that they can solve on their own every kind of problem which is encountered in schools. What is needed is training that will give teachers the skills to detect actual or potential problems, determine whether the solutions to the problems are within their professional competency, and, if not, permit the referral of the problem for help in solution. Sometimes the referral will be to a special resource within the school, and sometimes, to a broader community agency.

An important aspect of a good referral process is being able to make and report systematic observations of pupils who are experiencing difficulties. All teachers need to be competent in the observation of individual students in the context of group behavior in their classes.

Recommendations:

Teachers need to learn the procedures for referrals, the responsibilities involved, and the way to capitalize on referral resources in behalf of better education for individual pupils. They must be skilled in making systematic observations to provide data and undergird judgments for the referral process. There should be opportunities to obtain first-hand experience in how both in-school and community agencies operate.

9. Individualized Teaching

All teachers should be able, while managing and monitoring a group of pupils, to carry out individual assessments, identify individual learning styles, spot special needs, personalize and adapt assignments, and keep records on individual pupil progress toward established objectives.

These skills form the essence of teaching to the individual pupil. It does *not* mean, of course, that all teaching is one-on-one, and it does *not* mean that the teacher should attend to all pupils at the same time with the same degree of intensity. It *does* mean that the teacher has mastered the tactics of instruction which result in a reasonably close match between the interests and abilities of each pupil, the content that is being taught, and the methods of instruction being used.

Teachers should be able to understand and interpret theory and research relevant to the individualizing of instruction, be able to discern strengths and weaknesses of children's abilities, be knowledgeable about diverse models for individualized instruction, be skillful in developing objectives for each student, and be able to assess whether each student is meeting the objectives.

A particularly important aspect of individualizing instruction is competency in using assessment and grading systems that promote honest and useful information sharing with the individual student and parents. Thus, teachers should be competent in domain- or criterion-referenced assessment and in structuring case data for interpretation of the child's total educational situation. Also, they should be able to conduct valid evaluations of their own instruction.

Recommendations:

All teachers should be competent in the assessment of the individual student's educational needs and in adapting instruction to the individual. Starting from the first week of teacher preparation, and continuing until its completion, trainees should be in the company of experienced teachers who individualize education expertly and of specialists who can help in diagnostic and instructional processes.

10. Professional Values

All teachers, in their personal commitments and professional behavior with pupils, parents, and colleagues, should exemplify the same consideration for all individuals and their educational rights as are called for in Public Law 94-142 and in the Rehabilitation Act of 1973. These include the right of individual students to due process in all school placement decisions, to education in the least restrictive environment, and to carefully individualized education.

They also should be skilled in assisting others (parents, colleagues, pupils) in understanding and accepting as positive values the increasing diversity in characteristics of students who are enrolled in regular school programs. They need to be able to listen to opposing viewpoints without considering them as attacks on their own behaviors or values.

Both practicing teachers and teacher educators should be skillful and consistent models in what they say and do as professionals and of commitment to the implementation of the national and state laws relevant to education. If they choose to dissent, which they are free to do as a matter of individual conscience, they should distinguish clearly between their continuing professional obligation to their students and each other under existing law, and their rights as individuals to propose and promote orderly changes in the law.

Recommendations:

Selection and training processes in teacher education should include attention to values which give primary place to individual students, their needs and rights. Such values are required on a moral basis for anyone involved in teaching; but they are undergirded by codes of ethical behavior established by the teaching profession and in law. Teachers in training *should be oriented to ethical codes regarding their responsibilities to individual pupils.*

School law, and the regulations that relate to it, also should become part of the foundation of preparation for all teachers. The knowledge is necessary for the safeguarding of pupils' rights, self-protection, and intelligent professional behavior.

Assessment and Planning for Revision in Teacher Preparation

In this third section two major topics are presented: (a) a general model for the conceptualization of teacher preparation and (b) the recapitulation of the ten competency clusters in the context of a definite structure or model suggesting a system to advance the analysis, evaluation, and planning of teacher-preparation programs.

The Teacher-Preparation Model

Following is the outline of a model for the conceptualization of teacher preparation. It involves two major dimensions: (a) areas of study and (b) instructional modes.

Under "Areas of Study" are presented five general domains for the organization of the content or subject matter of teacher preparation; they are designated by letters (A through E) and can be described as follows:

> A. The *general or liberal education* which is designed to produce an "educated" person. The studies are those prescribed by the liberal arts faculties of institutions of higher education as the central core of knowledge which must be acquired by all degree candidates. Certain to be included are courses in the humanities, sciences, mathematics, literature, and languages.
>
> B. *Specific subjects in the specialty area* in which a student intends to teach. Obviously, the choice to teach in primary, secondary, special, or vocational education requires

different kinds and degrees of preparation. For example, a student must expect to meet very high competency standards in mathematics if he wishes to teach that subject at the high school or vocational school level; less advanced courses in mathematics are needed for primary school teaching.

C. Undergirding disciplines. Each profession has its base in one or more disciplines which are basic to it, foundational, or undergirding. The special concerns of the teacher trainees for human development and the efficient operation of social systems would dictate some areas of study, especially psychology, for example. Studies included here are basic in nature but selected for relevance to teaching. Though commonly taught through liberal arts, there is no inherent necessity that it be so.

D. Educational foundations includes the humanistic and behavioral studies that form a bridge between undergirding disciplines and their specific application to teaching practices in the schools. Here, for example, are included history (of education), philosophy (as related to basic principles and commitments in education), sociology (as related to the structures and processes of schooling as a social system), and psychology (as related to the studies of learners and the management of instructional procedures). The purpose and processes of schooling are the starting points for studies in educational foundations; they reflect on education and have meaning for practice but do not reach the specific level of teaching practice.

E. Professional practice. The specific knowledge, strategies, and models for the professional practice of teachers, plus consideration of the attitudes and values which must permeate the life and commitments of the truly professional teacher. Among specific studies here would be curriculum, methods of teaching, diagnostic procedures and materials, and systems of instructional management.

The model also includes a series of six "Instructional Modes." In rough sequence, the instructional modes represent a progression from direct instruction, in which the student in teacher preparation is the object, through intermediate stages where the student begins to take more initiative for managing his own learning using special resources and laboratories, and finally, to modes in which the student is confronted with complex clinical, field, and internship experiences and to which he/she is expected to respond in a professional manner. The instructional modes and other features of the model are presented in schematic form in Figure 1.

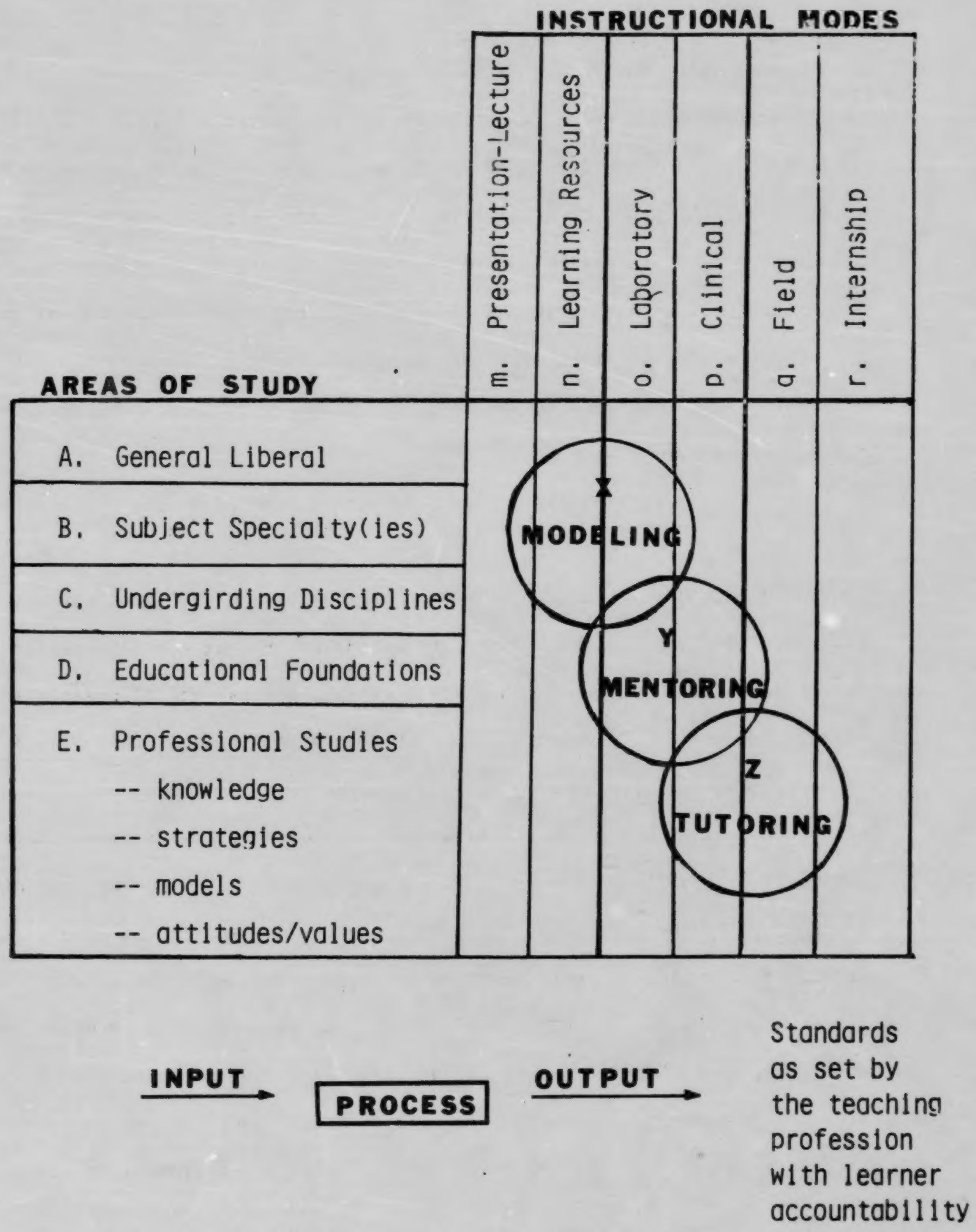

Figure 1. The Education of Professional Teachers: Areas of Study/Modes of Instruction.*

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* Adapted by Robert Howsam from a model first proposed in the bicentennial report of the AACTE on Educating A Profession (Howsam, et. al., 1976).

Across the bottom of the schema presented in Figure 1 is an input-process-output model that indicates the systemic nature of teacher education toward the level of professional competence expected by the profession. Learner accountability is emphasized because admission to and continuance in a profession depend upon practitioner possession and use of the extant professional culture. Implicit in the model is the necessity of clearly specifying objectives or standards toward which all work is directed. Implicit also is the need for effective evaluation systems, both formative and summative.

Superimposed diagonally across the matrix formed by the intersect of the columns and rows are three overlapping circles: "modeling," "mentoring," and "tutoring." These designations are characteristics of effective teaching which seem to transcend their mere consideration as strategies of instruction. They are, instead, the essence of greatness in master teachers. "Modeling" refers to behaving in ways that cause the student, whether consciously or unconsciously, to imitate the observed behavior; teacher education universally should exemplify what it explicates. "Mentoring" is the process by which teachers exercise conscious responsibility for personally interceding in the development of the student and in the making of wise choices in areas that will determine future directions. Mentoring is individual and highly personal. Studies have shown that most successful persons can identify one or more mentors in their lives. "Tutoring" is one-on-one instruction when the need for such attention is evident. It can be cross-age, peer, professional, or other.

Competency Clusters in the Preparation Structure

In this final section, consideration is given to each of the ten competency clusters in the context of the teacher-preparation model. Although brief, the presentation is sufficiently specific to be useful to teacher educators who wish to examine their own programs or to accreditation or other agencies that have occasion to monitor the operations of teacher-education programs.

The discussion is organized in the form of a chart that consists of three parts: (a) the identification of the competency cluster; (b) the designation by capital and lower case letters of the areas of study and instructional modes which are involved (for Key, see Fig. 1); and (c) a brief delineation of process guidelines or standards in the area. It should be recognized that the selection of areas of study is somewhat arbitrary since institutions may be organized in different ways and allocate functions accordingly. Similarly, there will be differences in modes between and among institutions.

Competency Clusters	Areas of Study and Instructional Modes	Description
Curriculum	B. Subject Specialty(ies) E. Professional Studies M. Presentation-Lecture N. Learning Resources P. Clinical	Every candidate for teaching should be provided through direct instruction with a knowledge of the school curriculum from kindergarten through high school. They should examine samples of curriculum materials in learning resource centers and make observations of instruction in various curricular areas at all levels of schooling. Students should know how curriculum decisions are made and be aware of and concerned with proper sequencing and interrelations of curricular components. They should be able to relate curricular topics to basic considerations about the history, purposes, and governance of schooling and to knowledge on human development. They should have experience in planning a curricula for individual students, including those whose needs dictate modifications in the ordinary structure of the curriculum.
Teaching Basic Skills	D. Educational Foundations E. Professional Studies M. Presentation-Lecture N. Learning Resources O. Laboratory P. Clinical Q. Field R. Internship	All teachers should be able to teach literary skills from beginning up to at least fifth-grade level and be proficient in instruction which maintains and advances good literary skills at advanced levels.* This will require familiarity with literacy teaching materials, some clinical (one-on-one or small group) experience plus supervised applications in field and internship situations. Similarly, all teachers must be able to teach personal and life-maintenance skills (safety, personal hygiene, mobility, and the like) and take a share of responsibility with all other teachers for instruction in these areas. Teachers should be able to relate instruction in these areas to the purposes of schooling and they should be able to relate their teaching roles to those of specialists in the cases of students who have exceptional needs.

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*For example, regardless of what specialty area of teaching they may be in, teachers should be skilled in introducing new vocabulary, creating the "set" for appropriate forms of reading comprehension, checking on student background (through survey exams), on prerequisite basic skills and concepts for an instructional unit, etc.

Individualized Teaching	C. Undergirding Disciplines D. Educational Foundations E. Professional Studies m. Presentation-Lecture n. Learning Resources o. Laboratory p. Clinical q. Field r. Internship	All teachers sould be able to carry out individual assessments to establish the developmental level of students in the subject matter being taught, and to identify students who have special needs and learning styles. They should also be able to personalize and adapt assignments and keep records of progress for individual students. They should be able to state individual goals and objectives for students and to carry out careful assessments in each domain of instruction. They should be familiar with at least some of the major systems (IGE, IPI, CAI, etc.) for the general management of individualized instruction. This competency cluster calls for strong preparation in criterion- or domain-referenced assessment as well as norm referenced testing. Teacher candidates should be expected to participate directly in a variety of supervised clinical studies that involve individualized assessments of the students, parent consultation, communication with diagnostic specialists (i.e., special educators, school psychologists, school social workers, speech-language pathologists, educational audiologists, etc.), observance of due process principles, and the writing of IEPs. It is important that the teacher of teachers provide a model of individualized teaching.
Exceptional Conditions	D. Educational Foundations E. Professional Studies m. Presentation-Lecture n. Learning Resources p. Clinical q. Field r. Internship	All teachers should recognize exceptional conditions in pupils that call for educational adaptations. They should know the key terminology and be able to specify the instructional (and special service) assistance needed to maintain those pupils in regular classes. This domain should include presentations to teacher-education students of basic information on exceptionality and common adaptations in regular classes. Also, experiences at clinical, field and internship levels should include interactions with exceptional students. Although P.L. 94-142 refers only to handicapped students, it is important that teachers be prepared to deal effectively with gifted and talented students as well. All teachers should have knowledge of the major principles and practices derived from research and experience in working with gifted students. Also, all teachers must be committed to and able to competently manage instruction which is multicultural in orientation.

Conferral and Referral	D. Educational Foundations E. Professional Studies m. Presentation-Lecture n. Learning Resources p. Clinical q. Field r. Internship	All teachers should recognize that they can obtain help from teaching colleagues and various specialists and that it is a sign of superior professional ability and stature, not of weakness, to recognize when help is needed and to ask for it, use it, and acknowledge its value. Teachers should be skilled in making and recording systematic observations of their students as a basis for informed referral and consultation. This competency cluster also calls for knowledge of the roles of various specialists, plus clinical experience in referral procedures. All teachers should be generally familiar with the full range of special services both within the schools and in the broader community.
Student-Student Relationships	C. Undergirding Disciplines D. Educational Foundations E. Professional Studies m. Presentation-Lecture n. Learning Resource o. Laboratory q. Field r. Internship	All teachers should be prepared to manage with high skill the relations among their students in "peer tutoring," "cross-age tutoring," and other group activities. Teachers should be skilled in giving students developmental perspectives about their own problems and concerns, in teaching them to be mutually helpful and supportive to one another, and in giving them increasing responsibility for helping to manage the educational environment. This set of competencies requires strong orientation in developmental and counseling psychology plus supervised experiences in laboratory, clinical, field, and internship settings.
Professional Values	A. General Liberal C. Undergirding Disciplines D. Educational Foundations E. Professional Studies m. Presentation-Lecture n. Learning Resources o. Laboratory p. Clinical q. Field r. Internship	All teachers should be well informed concerning such concepts as "right to education," "least restrictive alternative," and "due process," particularly as they relate to education for children from minority groups and those who are handicapped. They should make professional commitments to the realization of the values which these concepts represent. To achieve the goals in this area it is essential that prospective teachers receive relevant instruction as part of their general, foundational, and professional studies; perhaps more essential is that the attitudes be modeled by their instructors and be fully exemplified in the field and internship settings used for teacher preparation.

Professional Interactions	C. Undergirding Disciplines D. Educational Foundations E. Professional Studies o. Laboratory p. Clinical q. Field r. Internship	All teachers should be knowledgeable about processes of consultation, effective communications, and interprofessional planning. This knowledge requires strong elements of preparation in relevant disciplines and educational foundations plus supervised experience in clinical, field, and internship settings. Specific instruction in parent education and counseling should be provided. Important contributions to training should be expected from other professional fields, such as Counseling Psychology.
Teacher-Parent-Student Relationships	C. Undergirding Disciplines D. Educational Foundations E. Professional Studies m. Presentation-Lecture o. Laboratory p. Clinical q. Field r. Internship	All teachers hould have knowledge of the functions of families and how families interact with bureaucratic structures (including the schools) in which family members become involved. They should be especially well informed about difficulties which may arise in school/family interactions when the family is part of a disenfranchised group or when individual students are handicapped or unusual in some way. Teachers should have experience at clinical levels and in all other practicum settings in meeting with parents to plan school programs. They should have experience in working with other professionals in the same context. They should have training and experience in sharing educational tasks with parents.
Pupil and Class Management	C. Undergirding Disciplines D. Educational Foundations E. Professional Studies m. Presentation-Lecture n. Learning Resources o. Laboratory q. Field r. Internship	All teachers must be skilled in general classroom management procedures, including group processes (e.g., use of heterogeneous cooperative groups), group approaches to creating positive affective climate, and approaches for achieving group attention and individual orientation to task. These competencies call for specific elements of preparation in undergirding disciplines and educational foundations, especially in areas of sociology and social psychology, and for professional instruction and experience in application of procedures in group settings. A specific set of insights to and skills in applied behavior analysis should be included, in which case both clinical and classroom applications should be required.

Some Implications

Obviously, the preceding materials have been developed from a particular perspective, that engendered by the principles of Public Law 94-142. Although this important law has surprisingly complex and fundamental implications for teacher preparation, it is clear that the contents of this paper represent only a part of what needs to be considered in the formulation of a total program for teacher preparation. Thus, it is intended that this statement be used as a stimulus for creating a broader set of alternative statements about teacher education in general.

A number of teacher educators and other persons who are interested in teacher education have prepared responses to this paper in which they consider the broader implications for all of teacher education. They raise critical issues about teacher preparation, such as the time or life-space requirements and resources necessary for effective teacher preparation. May this not be the time and occasion for moving solidly for a minimum of five years instead of the customary four for entry level preparation for teaching? Other major issues surely needing attention include the following:

···How do we arrange instruction in undergirding disciplines and education foundations that, besides reflecting disciplinary structure, also reflect the structures and realities of teaching/learning problems in the schools?

···How can we arrange for sufficient flexibility in staffing teacher education programs so that new elements of importance can be drawn from various departments of the college or university?

···How can we arrange the continuing development of present teacher education faculties so that they can address competently the emerging new issues and challenges in teacher education?

•••Are we expecting too much of the great mass of "regular" teachers and do we need to work through a differentiated staffing strategy as we try to meet added challenges to the classroom?

•••What are the implications of Public Law 94-142 and other new forces for change for the preparation of school personnel besides teachers?

This statement was prepared in the belief that Public Law 94-142 reverberates against the basic structures of teacher preparation; that it amounts to a new and urgent call for examining the basic content and structure of teacher preparation. It is hoped that this statement and the set of responding papers will become one force in energizing a new and more searching look at teacher preparation, not only by teacher educators, but also by other persons, such as political leaders and interested citizens, who believe that effective education for handicapped students requires fundamental improvements in all of teacher preparation and teacher performance. It is time to raise public school teaching to the important professional status which it deserves and which the school and the public interest require.

At the time of this writing (August, 1979) work is underway in the offices of the National Support Systems Project at the University of Minnesota to analyze each of the ten competency clusters and the major elements of processes of teacher education to delineate a set of topics--perhaps 30 to 40 in number--on which efforts will be concentrated to develop materials useful in teacher education situations. The materials will be oriented, first, to assessment; that is, they will be useful to teacher educators who wish to examine their own competencies and the teacher preparation programs they conduct for coverage of certain critical topics. Secondly, they will provide sketches of the knowledge and skill bases included under each topic; these should provide "starters" for teacher educators who wish to make new efforts for improvement in the selected areas. Hopefully, these materials will make it possible for teacher-preparing institutions to "map" their strengths, weaknesses and needs in relation to the content and processes said to be important in earlier portions of this paper.

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Commentary on Teacher Education for Mainstreaming

(A Tape Transcription)

Robert B. Howsam

Introduction

It has been interesting to be involved with you in your deliberations about programs of higher education. My participation leads me to the following remarks, the purpose of which is to analyze, put in context, and perhaps in places enlighten the discussions.

In 1910 Abraham Flexner issued the report which resulted from the Carnegie Foundation-supported study of medical education. It is an enlightening document--one which you would enjoy. As one reads, one realizes that if you were to remove "medical" and "medical education" and insert "teaching" and "teacher education," much of the content would be remarkably contemporary. The difference between 1910 and 1980 would be the difference of professions--medicine and teaching.

Flexner came to his conclusions after looking at the medical profession and the dismal conditions in which it found itself. After examining the medical education institutions and the horrible conditions found in them--far transcending most of the things we could find in our situation--he came to the conclusion that the only solution to the problem was to concentrate on the preparation of medical people for the medical profession and control the quality of that preparation. Once that was done, the medical profession began its forward march. Suddenly, almost explosively (the time was right apparently), it happened. It was made to happen by concentrating on the development of medical science through research and medical practitioners through training.

We in education seem to have no alternative but to do likewise. We will spend our lives, and our successors will spend theirs, in a succession of crises if we do not go back to the root and get at what it is that we have to be able to deliver. It does not matter whether the specific issue is multicultural education or mainstreaming or something else; each issue is fundamentally rooted in the capacity of the profession to deliver services. If we do not keep our eye on that, we will have missed the main purpose for which we are supposed to be in business.

I often tell people that it takes two kinds of institutions to deliver a professional service to the society. One is the delivery institution we have been focusing on--the school--the delivery institution for educational services. The other institution is the profession that delivers those services in the school. In my view, our primary attention should be on the development of the profession. If we do our jobs well, the schools will be able to take care of themselves. And if we continue not to do our jobs, there is nothing under the sun the schools can do to take care of themselves, except to turn in desperation to localizing the preparation of teachers in the work place. The only alternative left to many superintendents of schools who are confronted with a problem such as mainstreaming is to go in and try to patch the system with in-service education. If we in teacher education continue to allow that to happen, we are very likely to be bypassed totally in these processes. When school superintendents cry out that colleges and universities cannot prepare teachers, they are speaking from their own personal experience as to the kind of professional service that they get. They come to that conclusion because, although we have had teacher education for 150 years, the product is not able to perform to the needed level. That is what led our Commission on Education for the Profession of Teaching to emphasize the preparation of teachers and to try to find the conditions under which we can do that properly.

I frequently comment, too, on academic freedom, about which there has been a great deal of talk. The concept of academic freedom comes from the academic profession and it applies in pure form only to the academic profession. It was for this that the universities were created and given autonomy. The academic profession--the oldest of all the professions--declared that, in order to perform its functions, it had to have the right of social criticism, free inquiry, free teaching, and dissemination. When you consider a professional school, however, you are talking about a preparation institution whose program is rationally built on consensual agreement among the members of the total profession. Such a consensus is based on research and on accumulated, carefully examined experiences. Once the substance of the preparation is decided, institutions and professors are bound to deliver. We as professors in a professional school do not have the right to call academic freedom into play in matters of instructional delivery. We do not have the right to say, "I am going to do this and I am not going to do that." If we belong to the profession, we are accountable to the profession. We have to dance to its tune. (Nothing in such a position should be interpreted as restrictive of the professor's right and obligation to question, to challenge, to research and experiment, and to seek program change.)

We in teacher education have tried to play both sides of that street, like the man in the Civil War who could not decide whether he was on the side of the North or on the side of the South, and so wore a blue coat and gray trousers. He got shot in both. We have been shot in both just too long, and now we must make our choices. We can be the Cinderella of the academic community, which we have always been and will continue to be, or we can stand up and be counted and become a respectable profession in our own right. To accomplish this, we will have to give up that comfortable little spot, where, though the sisters go to the ball, at least they drop us the crumbs from the ends of their fingers. That is not good enough for us, but it is all we will get as long as we insist that we are academics and that we want our identification within the academic community. I am sick of the game. It does not fit us. If we cannot buy in on the idea of profession, then I think we do not buy in on what our profession needs and has to offer us. I spend much of my life trying to rationalize that issue in my own mind and trying to convince other people.

As I have been listening to you, I think you have identified a number of different phases through which we have to pass. Before I even mention them, I think I ought to warn you that linear thinking in connection with the process you are undergoing is a very dangerous thing. One does not say, "We have to do this before we can do that," because many developments can and do go on at once. Anybody who deals with systems learns to take hold of a system anywhere he can get hold of it, and to manipulate and massage the elements of the system all at once, not just one at a time. Rarely does one need to say, "We have to get to this spot with the faculty before we begin to do that." As far as I am concerned, it is far better to think in terms of a number of different phases or developmental processes that we have to go through.

It seems to me that we have been talking about orientation a great deal. How are we to orient ourselves and how are we to orient our colleagues? Knowing what something is about is clearly a phase that we have to go through, and clearly it is a first step. However, I do not see any reason why we cannot start almost at once to develop some position statements. A small group of people can begin to write down the assumptions underlying what we propose to be our position. Others can develop meaningful and helpful statements based on literature and other resources that we presently have. Each activity of this kind will sharpen faculty awareness of their need for orientation. If the faculty had tossed on their desks tommorow a set of assumptions that you proposed to adopt at a faculty meeeting, there would be a very quick heightening of concern over their awareness levels. That is one process through which I would go. I would have some people who are good at developing assumption sets and position statements get at this task. No matter how crude these first position statements are, begin to feed them to the faculty. You will very quickly heighten people's concern over their awareness levels and get them on board. They will recognize that, except as they are involved, they will be bypassed in a process that, as the decision makers in your college, they cannot afford to be bypassed on. Out of all of this, you would begin to develop some sort of a consensus and a commitment to what has to be done.

Such a process is much more real if it is done out of position statements than if it is done out of orientation. Though orientation is not without value, all you get out of it is a sort of generalized commitment. When you begin to put down your position statements, you get down to nuts and bolts. Out of our own college's records, I can show you a great number of these draft position papers which were used to refine sets of objectives for our college. Such activities force people into an examination of the fundamental issues and away from the trivia that we tend to argue about as we consider whether we are going to do something one way or another.

Once basic understandings and commitments are obtained it is necessary to get into the question of implementation. Once again, I am not talking serially; the phases are conceptually discrete, but in practice they are interacting. This puts us into the position of saying, "We must implement something now." We will find that we have need for a curriculum development process, and an instructional design process.

Instructional Program Considerations

Figure 1 on the following page is a model which analytically portrays several elements of teacher education programs (a fuller description of the model can be found in Appendix A of this paper). On the left-hand side of the figure is a list of the substantive or the content areas on which our profession depends. It really is a list of all the components of a preparation program for teachers. Across the top is a selection of instructional modes which are suited to professional preparation programs.

Areas of Study

Five areas of study are indicated, some of which customarily are the responsibility of the Arts and Sciences faculty and some of the professional school of education.

General Liberal. All students have to meet the general education requirements of the institution. Whether that amounts to 40 hours, 45 hours, or 50 hours depends on the institution, but there almost always is a common core of up to 50 hours. For our own purposes, the best we in education can do with the general education requirement is to negotiate with the academic community to relate this component somewhat to teaching. For

The Education of Professional Teachers
Areas of Study/Modes of Instruction

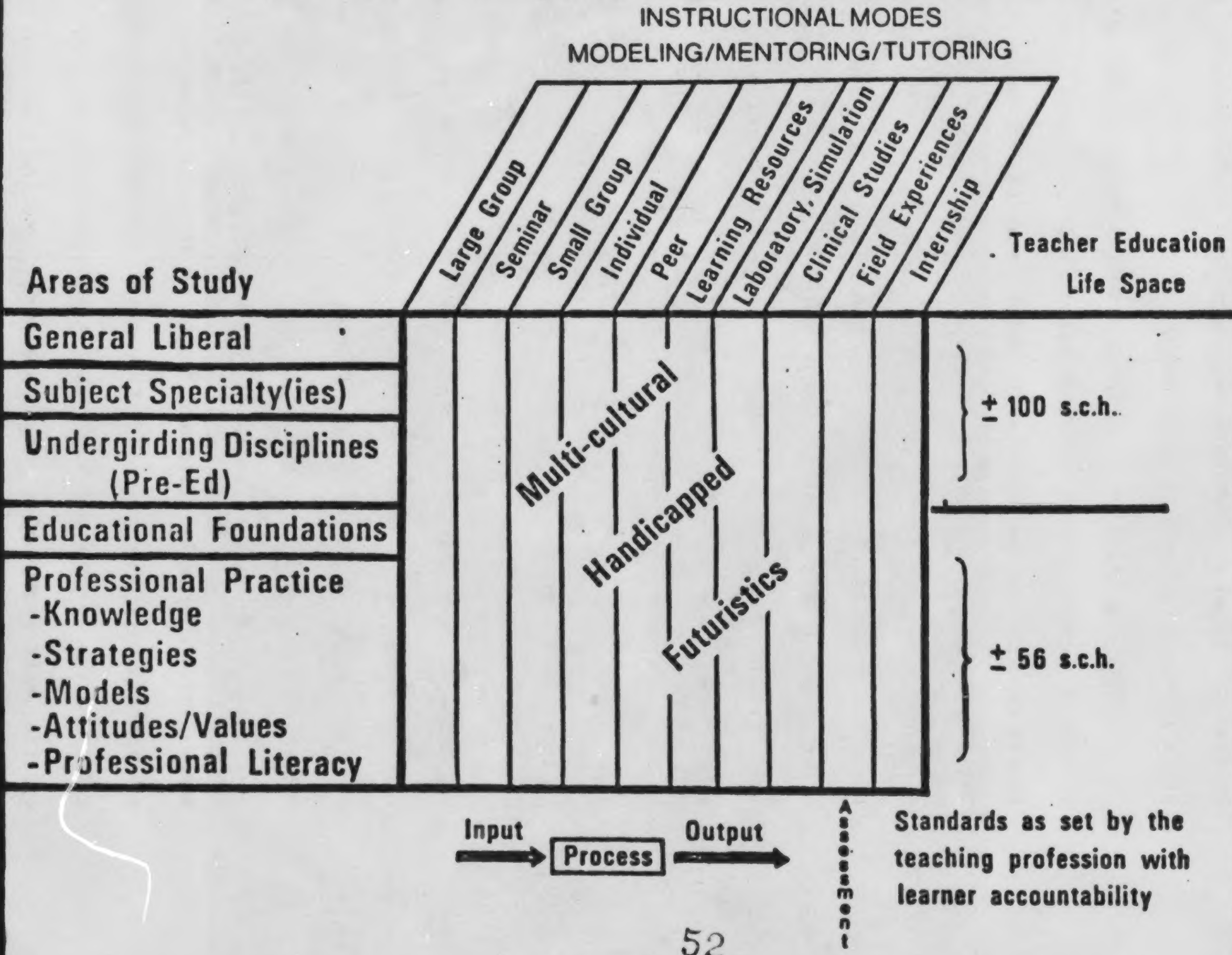

Figure 1

the most part, however, students from all areas of the university are involved in such classes, so little can be done to have them made directly relevant. In some institutions, education students could elect courses under professional school advisement.

Subject Specialty(ies). Texas requires everyone who is going to teach secondary school to have 24-hour specializations in each of two teaching fields (except in the all-level which requires 48 hours in one field). While other states may vary in the number they require, universally there is a subject area requirement similar to that of Texas. It is these hours that the other professions use for a major part of the professional preparation. After General Liberal, we have to work for up to 50 semester hours on teaching our students something to teach--before we get much chance to talk about how we are going to teach it. Regardless of how we interact and interface them, they remain fundamentally 50 hours of content in the disciplines. We cannot do much about it and would not want to if we could. It is an important element of teacher preparation.

Undergirding Disciplines. One of the characteristics of a profession identified in our Commission report indicates that a profession always is based in one or more undergirding disciplines out of which the practice of the profession is developed. Doctors have to study anatomy which is a discipline. Teachers need to study psychology, sociology, anthropology, and philosophy--four commonly-agreed upon undergirding disciplines of our profession. Normally these are taught in Arts and Sciences. Usually they are introductory courses. As with general liberal, we sometimes are able to influence the courses and have some teacher-relevant content in them. But for the most part, while the professors teaching the courses know their disciplines, they do not know how the disciplines relate to the education institution and to the act of teaching.

Educational Foundations. For every undergirding discipline in the pure sciences, there usually is a corresponding applied discipline called "educational foundations" which relates the discipline to schooling and/or teaching. Thus we have educational psychology, child development, educational sociology, educational philosophy, and so on. We have at least one foundation area for each pure discipline on which we depend.

Professional Practice. Finally we have the particular concerns which characterize our profession. These are the knowledges, skills, attitudes and values that our profession has to develop in its graduates before it inducts them into the profession and gives them a license to practice using the whole repertoire of instructional strategies, knowledges, and professional behaviors.

Life Space

On the right side of the model is a column headed "Teacher Education Life Space." Life space is expressed as semester credit hours.

If we take all of the components commonly assigned to Arts and Sciences, it takes roughly 100 semester hours, more or less, even with some overlapping among the components, to get these first three Arts and Sciences functions performed. This leaves us in education, at a bachelor's level, with roughly 20 hours within which to perform our obligations. It represents the amount left after others have taken their time out of the available 120 hours. That is where we get the box in which we live. The box is rational. Our continuing to live in it is irrational as far as I am concerned.

Thoughtful teacher educators rarely argue for reducing the Arts and Sciences input to our profession because they believe that nobody honestly can say that teachers should not be liberally educated, should not know well the subjects they are going to be teaching, should not be well informed so they can relate to current societal events, and so on. With this we readily agree. Neither can we argue that teachers should not be well versed in the undergirding disciplines of their profession. We cannot responsibly argue for cutting credit out of that area of study. But agreeing to this leaves us with the problem of our own life space.

When it comes to educational foundations and to the professional component of the knowledges, behaviors, and skills for teaching, we have agreed that we need the 20+ hours that we now get in the undergraduate program, plus another 30 hours which yields the approximation of a master's degree program. This provides 50 hours that we would have to ourselves to work on educational foundations and professional components. When we send students out to an internship, we probably will offer seminar credits for each of the two semesters they are interns, and that will run us up to 56 hours.

Rationally, therefore, what we are arriving at as a definition of the minimum level for professional preparation is the master's degree plus or inclusive of an internship.

Instructional Modes

The content of professional teacher preparation is only one consideration. Equally important is the means by which the instruction is to be delivered. Some representative modes are shown across the top of the model. Of these, only some will require a comment.

Instructional Resources. We will emphasize much more the use of mediated and other learning resources which permit the student to be an independent rather than a dependent learner. In our college, for example, we have a 10,000 square-foot learning resource center, a 4,000 square-foot production center, and another 4,000 square-foot facility that is a learning satellite. So we have roughly 16,000 square feet of our building devoted to learning resource center development and delivery. Developing materials for this center has caused us to grow more than anything else we have ever done; one really has to know what he is about when he starts to mediate himself. He has to know what he wants as objectives, how to deliver the instruction, and how to evaluate the outcomes. One grows in the process.

Laboratory Simulation. The laboratory methodology is one that our profession has not done well (micro-teaching and the use of protocols are examples of laboratory technology) but it is one which is vital to certain kinds of learning. For example, one can put students in lecture classes and lecture at them until hell freezes over and not necessarily touch their attitudinal or their behavioral components--except for affecting their cognitive ability to reproduce what you ask them to reproduce.

Producing teachers is probably the most difficult of all the professional acts carried on in our society. It is the most difficult partly because it is more complex to begin with; it is a less delimited field than most of the other professions. But the crucial reason why it is the most difficult is that the school is a primary institution which most people, as children, have experienced for 12 years, 200 days a year, five hours a day. They have had model teachers. All the other professions take people who are not already programmed when they enter the profession. They have seen their doctor a few times. They may never have seen a lawyer; they have little idea about what lawyers do and what lawyers are. In such cases people are a tabula rasa, waiting to have written on them what they should do and what they should be in their profession. Not so with ours. Every child can play school and play it with great fidelity. They know precisely what the behaviors of a principal are and precisely what the behaviors of a teacher are. They know it from long experience and their experience is value loaded. They are emotionally involved in who is a good teacher and who is not because of their own past experiences, what their parents have said, and so on. If we want to make teachers who are already imprinted either favorably or unfavorably into effective professional teachers, we have to eradicate the harmful practices and the value loadings that are on the practices.

I refer, for instance, to the tendency of our society to be judgmental and punitive, which is a common observation made about American society. From the very beginning of our history we were judgmental and punitive. We were extremely hard on children, extremely hard on each other. That is what we have learned out of our backgrounds. Yet we know from the science of our profession that such behavior is a generally dysfunctional mode. How are we to remove judgmentalism from a person before we turn him or her loose as a teacher in the school? Similarly, if a teacher is biased against a black skin or a brown skin or a language that is different from his own, do you just tell him it is not right? We know that such approaches cannot be expected to work. We have to use powerful strategies of instruction that are capable of changing the attitudinal, value-loaded behaviors that teachers bring with them. We need powerful strategies to overcome the forces that pull teachers in other directions.

The technology-supported laboratory, where people are brought together in small groups, is one of the best strategies for this purpose. In laboratory situations different modes of behavior are experienced and feedback is given in a supportive mode. This is the process in micro-teaching. We say, "This is an instructional behavior or strategy that teachers need--try it; we will video-tape you; we will sit down with you and play it back; we will point out what occurs and you can go back and try it again. As long as it takes, we want to keep at this. We are not rejecting you. We are simply saying that some behaviors are believed to be necessary to teaching and you need to have them eventually."

All kinds of materials--some developed in federal projects--are not used in most institutions because either we do not know about them or we are not comfortable with them or we do not have the time to use them. So we rush through our simpler processes and send out students who are not fundamentally changed but who can verbalize glibly those things that we wanted reproduced. This does not constitute action-effective professional behavior. So laboratories are needed as one of our major strategies.

Clinical Studies. We in teacher education know the variety of real world experiences that people need to get the orientation to and the practiced reinforcement of what we teach. The clinical experience is the most neglected of all. In my view, not a single teacher should ever be permitted to go into the schools unless that teacher has had a minimum of eight or ten in-depth clinical experiences with children with different kinds of learning challenges--hopefully there could be more. This requires an operating clinic on the campus or in conjunction with the schools, where a student teacher, under supervision, can work up cases on particular children and develop recommendations regarding those children. In other words, it is an individual program of the kind that optometry students, for example, experience in countless hours of clinical training. Such experiences involve being assigned to a client, working up a case, making up a prescription, calling the professor, having the professor see if it was an accurate prescription. Students in the professional schools do such processes over and over again to make sure that they can prescribe safely. We, on the other hand, send people out into the teaching profession without the experience of a single case. Then we tell them they have to individualize programs and do diagnosis and prescription of learning problems every minute of the day. We are never going to prepare professional teachers until we put them in clinical settings and make them see children as individual children. Schools always have looked at classes of students as the unit. Even though we have talked about individualization, we also always have talked about grouping for instruction. We never have taught teachers to look at children as individual cases to be diagnosed and dealt with in terms of the individual's particular needs. If we are not prepared to go into depth in our preparation, most of our training will fail.

The Internship. Perhaps it would be wise also to point out that teachers, unlike practitioners of most other professions, do not deal only with individuals. They also have to deal with the class as a group and with subgroups within the class. Clinical studies of the sociology of the classroom and its impact on learning are as important as studies of individuals. In the last year, after meeting the requirements of the training program to a satisfactory level, the student teacher would be employed in a school as an "intern" or "beginning teacher" for a year or two, under the supervision of and with assistance from both a professional from the local school and a teacher educator from the college. This instructional mode would be similar to other professional internships where for a year the intern's decisions are monitored, help is given, and effectiveness on the firing line is assessed in actual situations.

Modeling, Mentoring, Tutoring

Among the most important modes of instruction, three have been singled out and placed separately across the top of the model. These are "modeling," "mentoring," and "tutoring."

Modeling. Modeling refers to acting in ways that serve as examples to those whom we teach. There is ample evidence of the power of models in affecting the behaviors of people. In teacher education everything around the student should exemplify the best of educational practice. This is true of professors and professorial behavior, of strategies of instruction, of facilities, of interpersonal relations, and of support services. A College of Education must seek to "exemplify what it explicates," in part because it must be true to itself and in part because modeling is one of its most effective strategies.

Mentoring. Extensive studies have revealed the power as well of mentoring. Studies in business reveal that every successful business leader studied can identify one or more personal mentors--a mentor being a person who has taken a personal interest in and has intervened to influence the career of the individual. A prominent medical doctor has indicated the importance of one-on-one mentoring in medical education as well.

Tutoring. As a concept and practice, tutoring is well known to us. Teacher education students need instruction in and experience with tutoring.

As with other forms of instruction, students of teaching need to experience all three of these powerful modes of interpersonal influence.

Systemic Process

Though the model is analytic in its nature and intent, it can also be viewed as an input-process-output system model. The input-process-output nature of the preparation process is shown on the lower right. Operating toward a set of objectives that are declared, made public, and known by the learner, the strategy is similar to that of competency-based education. It does not matter whether it is called competency based or something else. In any case, professional education has to be objective oriented; we have to identify what we want the student to know and what we want the student to be able to do. Then we have to put on-line an input-process-output operation and assessment. When it is all over, we have to hold the learner accountable for meeting the objectives. It is important to keep in mind that the objectives represent the standards which the profession sets. In the ideal sense, both teacher education and the student are accountable to our profession.

There is no excusing our sending an unprepared professional out to practice because we did not have enough life space; no decent profession sends out a person who has not been held accountable, before he/she is sent out, for demonstrating the capacity to be a good professional to a *safe* level.

Maynard Reynolds has been trying with the help of a group to put flesh on the bones of this model, particularly on those items on the left-hand side of our figure. The intent will be to see if we can identify, for the mainstreaming movement and for the teaching profession in general, the instruction that we can offer that would be directly related to the question that we have been considering here, the mainstreaming of handicapped children. The profession no longer can afford to prepare its practitioners to a level which assumes that the most challenging cases will be sent elsewhere.

Resource Implications

It is obvious that the use of extended programs and more effective strategies of instruction has resource implications. The proposed program would involve a higher per student cost. It is important, however, not to jump too quickly to conclusions about cost. It also is important to take the broader rather than the narrower view and to emphasize cost benefit.

The purpose behind improvement in the teacher education program is more effective education in the schools. Schools have a choice. They can operate so as to create problems and then mount expensive corrective and remedial programs, or they can seek to prevent problems. If, as this observer believes, many of the chronic problems of schools derive directly from chronic neglect of teacher preparation, then the least expensive solution may be better initial preparation. The exercise of the teacher preparation option would cost more in the higher education budget and less in that of the public schools.

Even that line of reasoning may be faulty, however. Teacher education has long been the bargain basement of higher education. Students have flocked to it, but many bought what they didn't really want--except for the degree label on it. Thus, in the end, many went into other walks of life without ever teaching or after teaching for short periods of time. Extended and rigorous programs of teacher education would cut out the bargain shoppers. A program twice as long in the professional requirements for half as many students could cost little more than at present and benefit schools at the same time.

Neither are all of our present programs low cost. Professors justify the need for small classes and then lecture to them; such instruction has a high unit cost and low effectiveness. Student teaching--a relatively ineffective instructional strategy--has been relatively high in cost.

Cost should not be permitted to turn aside efforts to improve teacher education. The profession can make better use of existing resources. More importantly, however, it can call upon those who provide resources to the educational system to invest in the most significant effort of all--the education of professional teachers.

Concluding Remarks

I often find myself asking whether we any longer care. Do we as professionals stand up and tell the public what we could do "if"? Do we relate to our own teaching profession to convince it that we know what a good program is? Do we recognize the criticism we deserve for the output of teacher education? Do we seek our profession's support in designing what it is that needs to be there? Do we respect our practitioner professional colleagues and value their involvement in teacher education? Do we believe that if they join with us they will come to a conclusion similar to ours? There is no way, in my view, that one can escape these conclusions. They are minimal; they are not maximal. Boldly and openly sharing them is the only way to get supoport.

As Cremin said last February in his Hunt lecture, and as I timidly said last October in Saskatchewan where I thought it was fairly safe, ultimately all teachers should end up with a doctor's degree. The other professions do. If one goes through law, one gets a Doctor of Jurisprudence; if one goes through optometry, he receives a Doctor of Optometry; in medicine, it is a Doctor of Medicine. Our long-term objective, probably not publicly stated at this time, when we get to full professional status, should be to grant all teachers a professional doctor's degree. Then when we graduate them, when they walk by and receive their certificates and diplomas on stage, the Dean will not have to whisper to them, "You get back here next fall and get going on the rest of your preparation." That is what we now do to teachers. The day they walk across the stage we tell them we will see them in September. We tell them that they will be responsible for removing the deficit with which we have left them. That is an unconscionable thing to do.

Texas has recently proposed a bill which would establish some legal requirements of this kind. The bill would allow a teacher five years in which to pick up a master's degree. Contemplate, if you will, that partially-trained teacher going out to work in a mainstreamed class in the central city, struggling for survival, and being told that one night a week or two nights a week he/she is to be at the college for three hours and that he/she is to study at least an additional six hours in connection with each of those three. Contemplate, too, that teacher being told to be an effective and successful teacher, and not to let the children down. How long must we suffer this? How long can education professors remain silent and seem not to know or care?

Many professional educators across the nation despair of major improvements in teacher education and the teaching profession without major improvements in the governance and control of professional matters. Attempts are being made to establish teaching as a profession under the law and to set up professional practices commissions with appropriate authority in professional matters.

We in Texas are actively engaged in such an effort at this time. The deans of education and the Texas State Teachers' Association have collaborated in drafting and proposing a bill for this purpose. We are confident that it will go forward and pass the legislature this year.

We in teacher education have to believe that teachers, too, are rational beings. We can and must work together. In the initial efforts there will be tensions as some long-harbored feelings are released, but these soon will pass. Then common ground based upon common interest will be discovered and the power of the organized teachers will drive reform in teacher education. We are unlikely to get it any other way. Teacher education has no power of its own and it has few who know enough or care enough to act in its behalf. Our own profession is our source of potential power and influence.

I conclude by saying that I think we ought to remind ourselves that professors are not immaculately conceived and they are not divinely inspired. We have to use the same strategies of instruction on ourselves as we use in preparing teachers. Otherwise, we will go into this effort of self-improvement at a cognitive level with minimal commitment, and we will end up with the frustration that many others have experienced in similar attempts. We have to be serious about our own education. It takes powerful strategies and good climates to prepare other people in important things. It will take no less for professors, and perhaps more, because of their seeming assumption that they are divinely inspired. We just have to take our own development very seriously if we are going to get anywhere. The more we can get involved in the kind of process that I indicated earlier, the more we can actually take it on as a challenge and a task and work at it together, the less likely that people will say, "Before we can do that, we need this." That is what leads to educational efforts and training efforts on the part of ourselves.

We should not overlook the reality that the whole system of the university is against it. One does not get a brownie point on the university campus for attending a workshop. One does not get promoted for that; neither does salary flow from it. It will be an uphill fight because the value system in the university, particularly at this time, is not highly favorable to it. Sometimes I wish we were still normal schools. At least we would have control of our own destiny.

When it comes down to the last question of all, the question is: Do we have enough guts to risk our present situation in favor of a better one? The word "risk" always carries the possibility that it could go either way, though in our case there seems precious little to lose. It is not an easy thing to confront the academic community. It is not an easy thing to live through the grinding experience of having teachers and teacher educators confront each other like born enemies. But I can tell you that we came through such confrontations before. After all the arrows have been shot and all the spit balls have been thrown, we have sat down together and found it in our best interest to stay together and do things together. I am convinced that is the way it is going to be if only people commit themselves.

There are precious few Colleges of Education around the country that are prepared to make the level of commitment that is necessary if we are going to meet the challenges of mainstreaming, and above all, if we are going to meet the challenges of a strong professional preparation program. Anything less than that is not going to get us there. Let this be one of the precious few!

APPENDIX

THE EDUCATION OF PROFESSIONAL TEACHERS

As the College of Education goes about redesigning and redeveloping its preservice teacher preparation program(s), it will have to address the questions of what it wants its graduates to know and be able to do. It will also have to address the questions of how best to conduct the instruction and assess the results.

Figure 1, included in the body of this paper, is designed to provide an organizer for such planning. Two dimensions are addressed:

1. Areas of Study
2. Instructional Modes

Before a teacher education program can be effected, it is necessary to determine specifically the knowledges, behaviors, and skills which the total program will require, what responsibilities will reside in each area, and what the inter-relationships between and among the responsible units should be. Instructional modes need similar consideration though they can be more flexibly suggested as appropriate for particular purposes.

Areas of Study

Areas of Study is shown as having five components.

1. General Liberal. This is the general or liberal component which universities commonly require of all students in all programs. Usually it approximates 50 semester hours and includes required and/or elective work in humanities and fine arts, mathematics and science, social and behavioral sciences, and health and physical education. Since they are a requirement common to all entering students and since many students transfer after community college, professional schools tend to have little control of the general education part of the undergraduate program. In some cases they can influence student choices to include introductory work in subjects of value to professional education.

2. Subject Specialties. Certification requirements will guarantee a minimum amount of coursework in the areas of teaching specialization for secondary teachers and may have similar distribution requirements for elementary. Colleges of Education should attempt to ensure that the Arts and Sciences requirements and offerings are maximally relevant to the public school curriculum. The degree of their capacity to do so will vary from institution to institution.

3. Undergirding Disciplines. Every profession has some disciplines which are basic to it. From them come the wellsprings of professional

knowledge. Teaching can identify Psychology, Sociology, Anthropology, and Philosophy as disciplines from which professional practice grows and develops.

In some professions the targeted study of such disciplines is labeled "pre-_____" (pre-med; pre-law). In others, the disciplines are made a part of the requirements without special designations. In either case, they are important sources of insight, principles, and theory of great significance to the profession.

Professional schools may yield all or some of the work in the undergirding disciplines to the academic disciplines, or they may find it necessary to teach all or some of it themselves. Almost invariably there is tension over how relevant to professional needs the courses in the disciplines are. This is perfectly understandable since the courses--unless specially taught--are not targeted at the professions or at any particular profession. They contain students from more than one professional school as well as majors in the discipline, and, since taught usually by faculty from the discipline, they favor the academic students.

Whatever the situation, professional schools need to require study of the undergirding disciplines and to exercise as much control as possible over relevance. One means professional schools have of doing this is to select the most relevant courses and, through requirement or counseling/advising, get their students into them. Under favorable conditions special sections may be offered or content negotiated.

4. Educational Foundations. The foundations of education are a direct counterpart of the undergirding disciplines. Whereas in the disciplines the subject or discipline is itself the object of study, in the foundations, education and teaching are the objects of attention as seen through the eyes of scholars with a dual orientation to the discipline and the object of attention. Together the undergirding disciplines and the educational foundations provide the understandings of the individual, the school, and the society which are fundamental to professional practice in the society. Professors in these areas may come out of the practitioner role and take advanced studies or they may come out of the academic tradition. In either case it is essential that they have had extensive experience with the learner, the institution, and community educational conditions. In these areas direct relevance and close ties to what is offered in the professional practice part of the program must be expected.

5. Professional Studies. The professional studies provide direct instruction in and experience with the actual practice of the profession. Building on the undergirding disciplines, a body of knowledge or practice and a repertoire of behaviors and skills for use in making and implementing professional decisions are developed in the student.

It is in this area that the student gains knowledge of practice and develops the professional behaviors and skills required for admission to the profession. Curriculum, methods, instructional strategies, evaluation, professional standards, and general professional literacy are addressed.

Much of the actual experience with students in individual, clinical, group and classroom situations is in this area. Professors and school-based professionals work together in providing the experiences.

Though there is nothing sacrosanct in these categories of instruction, they do correspond to common usage. Together they portray the broad scope of teacher preparation. They are, however, only a beginning. Much more demanding is the development of the knowledges, behaviors, skills and attitudes which represent the outcomes of the program; deciding on the specific content and activities which will be needed to yield the outcomes; allocating the responsibilities to the various instructional units; and coordinating or integrating the respective functions and instructional activities into a coherent whole.

Modes of Instruction

Modifying the behaviors of students in professional schools in the direction of professional practice is never a simple matter. A wide array of instructional strategies ranging from the most simple to the most complex is needed. The need may be greater in teacher education since students have been exposed to the practice of teaching to such a great extent. The teacher education student is no tabula rasa to be written upon; rather the slate is already deeply marked with attitudes, beliefs, behaviors and models of behavior, much of which may be dysfunctional to effective practice. No other profession has this problem to so great an extent.

Most of the modes of instruction listed are too well known to require elaboration. Only those less commonly used or variantly used will be elaborated.

Learning Resource

Much of the cognitive substance of teacher education could be modularized and presented to students by way of technology if so desired (book; film; filmstrip; slide-tape; audio cassette; video cassette; computer program; etc). The advantage of the approach is the conservation of human instructional resources and the capacity to individualize.

Laboratory Simulation

The laboratory permits the presentaton of segments of reality without the contamination of situational variables and without unnecessary interference with professional practice and clients in real situations. Protocols and micro-teaching are examples of the use of laboratory approaches in teacher education. Computer simulations permit the use of audio and video technology along with either linear or branching decision making. The utility of these approaches has been demonstrated to the point where much more use would be justified.

Clinical Studies

Teaching has long been viewed as a group or classroom activity. In keeping with this view (and for other reasons--such as time available and resources), the teacher education experiences have been group related. Rarely have those preparing for the usual teaching assignment had serious in-depth clinical experience with a number of individual cases. It is unlikely that the group orientation of teachers will be greatly modified until serious attention is given to cases and to clinical study. Some of the training cases would have to be real and live. Others might be simulated or computerized.

Field Experiences

Teacher education is no stranger to field experience. A range of activities from undirected observation to student teaching has been employed.

Internship

The internship, common in other professions, also has been used to a limited extent in teaching. In essence it involves practicing the profession under supervision as a last experience in the program. The internship in teaching usually has been experimental and limited to a few students. A common pattern has been to assign a group of five or six students to regular classroom responsibilities and to provide a full-time school-based supervisor and a part-time college person to provide constant assistance throughout the internship year. The costs of the program have been covered by reducing the usual teacher pay to 3/4 or 2/3 and pooling the difference to cover program costs. A problem in terms of teacher surplus is resistance from teachers because of regular teacher displacement.

Modeling, Mentoring, Tutoring

Centrally placed above the modes of instruction in the matrix are three behaviors that can also be called "modes." They are, however, more than mere strategies; they are important and influential human behaviors.

Modeling

Highlighted in Banduran psychology, modeling is influencing the behavior of others by example. People, and children in particular, tend to initiate the behaviors of significant others in their lives.

Teacher preparation is the only professional preparation where what the instructor teaches about is what he/she actually is doing. To not model the instructed behavior is to introduce disruptive dissonance into the teaching-learning system.

Teacher educators have no logical option except to exemplify what they explicate. They also should raise the level of consciousness in teacher education students about the importance of modeling for the teacher.

Mentoring

According to dictionary definition, a mentor is "a trusted counselor or guide." In use, however, the term means much more. It means a person who takes an interest in another--usually younger--person and wisely assists in directing the course of that person's life. Recent research in the business area has indicated that successful people always can identify one or more mentors in their lives. The mentor has been influential in the directions taken and the successes achieved.

Teacher education should seek to promote mentoring among its faculty and to encourage teacher education students to internalize the mentor model.

Tutoring

Tutoring is one-on-one teaching. It may involve instructor and student or it may involve such arrangements as peer tutoring.

Needed Special Attention:

Multicultural Education, Education for the Handicapped, and Futuristic Emphases

Logically multicultural education and education for the handicapped are included in the various components and cells of the matrix and need no special attention. They are shown separately to highlight a pervasive concern.

From time to time new thrusts and needs emerge in education or old concerns take on new meaning. Multicultural and the disadvantaged have become central concerns and major thrusts. They no longer are just objects of curriculum attention. Instead they pervade the system. Thus they are separately displayed.

Futuristic emphasis would appear to merit similar attention. In times of rapid change the generations tend to drift apart, each being a product of its own time and place. Effective teaching requires "withitness." Not only will futures orientation help teachers catch up; it also can engender the tendency to keep up.

Life Space

"Life Space" is a term which has been suggested to mean the amount or preparation time available for the education of pre-service teachers. It can be translated into semester credit hours or quarter hours in a quantitative sense. Conceptually it expresses a concern for the adequacy of time and other resources for teacher education. The actual hours as indicated are "guesstimates" based on experience and analysis. As presented they indicate need for a more protracted program than presently is available.

A Note of Caution

It should be recognized that the Areas of Study/Modes of Instruction model is designed as an analytic device. It is not a process model. The process model, introduced below the main model as a reminder, involves identifying specific objectives and building an instructional program to meet them. The analytic model is the basis for derivation of the objectives and the delivery system but it is not the system itself.

Some Legal Aspects of Education for the Handicapped

Daniel Selakovich

There seems to be a genuine concern for the needs and rights of handicapped persons in the United States in 1978. Some major legislation was enacted by Congress in the 1970's designed to protect the legal rights and enhance the education of handicapped children. In addition, state legislatures have acted in this field in recent years. This paper will examine some issues which have been raised by laws designed to protect the handicapped and some cases which have been brought in their interests. This examination is premature since few of the cases have been finally decided. In addition, many "cases" are merely requests for legal definitions, decrees, or injunctions. The laws are so recent and the legal process so slow that it will be some years yet before some of the issues raised in this paper reach final court settlement. Thus the conclusions which can be drawn from this paper are limited. This paper is also limited in the selection of cases. Since there are no genuine "landmark" cases, the selection is arbitrary. Those cases which were selected merely illustrate the breadth and complexity of the problem.

Major Statutes on Education for the Handicapped

Briefly, four major national laws have applied to the issue of education for the handicapped. These are: The Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (Sec. 504), Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (1970), The Education For All Handicapped Children Act, Public Law 94-142 (1975) and the Educational Rights and Privacy Act of 1974 (Buckley Amendment), the major provisions of which have been incorporated in Public Law 94-142 (Sec. 121a.15).

Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 provides that

> no otherwise qualified handicapped individual . . . shall, on the basis of his handicap, be excluded from the participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subject to discrimination under any program or activity receiving federal assistance.

Discrimination is prohibited in employment, program accessibility, health, welfare social services and education. The Act provides that every recipient of federal funds that operates a public elementary or secondary education program shall provide, either directly or through referral, a free and appropriate public education to each qualified handicapped person regardless of the nature or severity of the person's handicap. (S. 84.33) The Act further provides that all educational placement shall be in "the least restrictive educational environment with the maximum degree of integration with the non-handicapped as is appropriate for the handicapped student." The regulations describe evaluation and placement procedures and establish procedural safeguards for the handicapped. They insure the handicapped equal access to extracurricular services, counseling services, physical education and athletics.

Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as amended in 1970, states that

> No person shall . . . on the ground of race, color, or national origin, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving federal financial assistance. S. 200d (applies to handicapped children, or those so identified who are in the minorities named in this act)

The major provisions of the Education For All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (P.L. 94-142) include:

1. A formula for providing funds for handicapped starting at 5% in 1978 until 1982 when it will become 40 percent (projected cost 1982, 3.16 billion).

2. States must submit a plan which assures complete due process, non-discriminatory testing and evaluation, the "least restrictive" educational environment.

3. Development of an individualized written program for each handicapped child.

4. U.S. Commissioner of Education is empowered to cut off all federal funds if non-compliance is found.

The Educational Rights and Privacy Act of 1974 has been almost completely restated in section 121a.15 of the Education For All Handicapped Children Act. Data confidentiality is spelled out in great detail as are policies and procedures of record keeping and the use of records. Briefly, records cannot be kept and used without written consent of parents; parents must be informed in their own language of what procedures are being followed and what things are in the records; parents are to be notified of their rights under the law and they must understand that they have the right to inspect their child's records and to remove materials from the records.

Lau v. Nichols--A Precedent Setting Case?

In Lau v. Nichols (1974) the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that San Francisco's failure to take affirmative steps to meet the language difficulties of non-English speaking Chinese students constituted a violation of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The students claimed that their language difficulties in school prevented them from learning and thus denied them equal protection of the laws under the Fourteenth Amendment. The District Court and the Court of Appeals denied them relief, finding that their language problems were not caused by the school and hence they had no constitutional right to special language programs. The Supreme Court reversed, finding that Title VI, which bars discrimination in federally assisted programs, requires affirmative steps to bring non-English speaking students into the educational mainstream. The Court said:

> Basic English skills are at the very core of what these public schools teach. Imposition of a requirement that, before a child can effectively participate in the educational program he must already have acquired those basic skills, is to make a mockery of public education. We know that those who do not understand English are certain to find their classroom experiences wholly incomprehensible and in no way meaningful.

Lest too much be implied from Lau it must be pointed out that the Court did not specify what kind of program schools had to institute. Lau is important to the issue of equal educational opportunity for the handicapped since its findings have been applied to alleged discrimination by schools against a variety of handicaps.

Some Recent Court Actions

Hundreds of cases have been brought in Federal District courts since the passage of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 and P.L. 94-142. Most of these have been Civil Actions in which plaintiffs or defendants have asked the courts to clarify or define the law or to determine if existing state programs were in compliance with recent national law. This latter situation has created a blizzard of litigation in Federal Courts since both those identified as handicapped and school officials were eager to determine the constitutional standing of their own state laws for special education as well as to determine the impact of P.L. 94-142 on their own state programs. Ironically, the states which were most "progressive" in developing their own programs of special education over the last decade or two, find themselves with the greatest legal tangles. This problem exists largely because the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 and P.L. 94-142 constitute a radical departure from what was the conventional wisdom on special education. For several decades schools had assumed that the best way to deal with special educational problems was through separate and special treatment. The major concern seemed to be to deal with the educational problems of handicapped students. Little thought was given to the Fourteenth Amendment provisions of "equal protection of the laws" or "due process of law." With the enactment of The Rehabilitation Act and P.L. 94-142, every program in the country became legally suspect. Indeed, the philosophy of the statutes was a reversal of nearly everything that had been done in the interest of the education of the handicapped for three decades or more.

In hundreds of cases since 1975, Courts have been called upon to decide technical legal issues. Some examples from 1975 include: Allen v. McDonough (Mass.), Rainey v. Tennessee Department of Education, Hernandez v. Porter (Mich.), Denver Association for Retarded Children v. School District No. 1, Harris v. Keane (Virgin Islands) in Re Jessup (New York), and hundreds more. Every state which had any provision for special education on its books has had some court action. Since 1975, case law has developed in at least three major areas. These include: identification and implementation of programs, placement, and due process.

Identification and Implementation

Perhaps the leading case to date on identification and program implementation brought under P.L. 94-142 is Mattie T. v. Holladay (Civil Action No. DC 75-31-S, N.D. Miss. 1977). The Plaintiffs in this case were challenging the entire educational system in the state of Mississippi, charging that no program was available that would meet the special needs of children in that state. In this class action on behalf of handicapped children in Mississippi, the Plaintiffs charged that the state and local school officials failed to meet the federal statutory and constitutional duties created by the Education For All Handicapped Children Act, the

Rehabilitation Act of 1973, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, the Fourteenth Amendment and Section 1983 of the Civil Rights Act of 1875. Specifically, they charged that the state failed to: (a) provide any services for handicapped children; (b) provide adequate educational services to many other children; (c) provide fundamental procedural safeguards in decisions involving the identification, evaluation and placement of handicapped children; and (d) eliminate racially discriminatory tests and evaluation procedures to identify and place children in special education classes.

The Court found for the Plaintiffs and ordered the state, under the Education of the Handicapped Act of 1975, to file a state wide program for the approval of the Court for fiscal year 1978.

Placement and Programming

A major problem which has developed as school officials attempt to implement state and national laws on special education and education for the handicapped is the misplacement of students. Many school officials have been somewhat loose in their identification of special education students. In hundreds of schools "normal" minority children have been classified as special education students. Those who have felt victimized by these practices have sued.

In Hernandez v. Porter, a class action suit in Michigan, Spanish-speaking students alleged that they were placed in special education classes and as a result were damaged by the experience. They were demanding remedial educational services and money damages. Although in this case the Court found for the defendants and decided that school officials had acted within their legal rights, the Court did order the Detroit school system to take a series of actions designed to protect students against misclassifications. These included such things as re-evaluation of Latino students by a Latino psychologist, provision for some remedial services to get students back into the regular program, and correction of student records where errors had been made.

In a similar case, Lora v. Board of Education of the City of New York, action was brought on behalf of emotionally disabled Black and Hispanic students in need of special education. They alleged that special day schools established for them were "dumping grounds" for minorities. Claiming that procedures for assignment were vague and subjective, they alleged that their civil rights were being violated. The Court declared that recommendation for placement in special schools could only be justified if the treatment provided there was appropriate for the needs of the child. This finding was based on law, i.e., the Education For All Handicapped Children Act of 1975. There was, in the Court's view, both a statutory and constitutional right to adequate treatment. In this instance, the Court found that there was a prima facie case of racial discrimination in violation of the Constitution and an unacceptable educational program in violation of the law.

State and federal courts may be willing to become deeply involved in determining what schools must do in order to meet the requirements of P.L. 94-142. Such was the case of a Colorado District Court in Lopez v. Salida School District (1977). Lopez, identified as a handicapped student, had been excluded from school for three years. He claimed he was denied a free public education, an appropriate program written especially for his needs, and due process of law. The Court agreed on all counts. They directed the Salida school system to provide Lopez with a program designed for his needs, as well as tutorial, psychological and counseling services. Moreover, the local school board was directed to provide Lopez' attorneys with periodic progress reports twice each academic school year.

Due Process

In Hairston v. Drosick (1974), the Supreme Court of North Dakota ruled that due process had been denied a mentally competent student with spina bifida (inability to control bowels) by excluding him from regular classes. The Court reasoned that there "must be a compelling educational justification" to deny a handicapped student access to a regular class. The Court found that exclusion of the student without notice and hearing denied procedural due process. Regulations formulated by HEW under the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 provide for full notice and an extensive hearing before an impartial person, which was not provided in this case. However a Missouri Court ruled against the plaintiff in a similar case in 1977 (Sherer v. Waier).

In Rainey v. Tennessee Department of Education (1976), the Chancery Court of Tennessee ruled that not providing a special education program for the handicapped was a violation of the plaintiffs' due process of law. In answer to the pleas by the state department of education that funds were not available, the Court expressed the view (although it did not rule on the issue) that "where there is a shortage of funds the whole program must suffer without discrimination as to members of a minority class." This ruling was upheld in 1977 in the Tennessee Court of Appeals.

In Frederick L. v. Thomas 408 F. Supp. 832 (1976), the District Court for Eastern Pennsylvania ruled that the failure of the Philadelphia schools to provide a suitable education for students with perceptual handicaps was a violation of equal protection of the laws and denied the plaintiffs due process of law. The Court observed that the school district was providing "normal" children with appropriate free public education, while denying the same opportunity to the plaintiffs.

Sometimes courts find limitations placed on handicapped persons legitimate. The District Court ruled in Davis v. Southeastern Community College 424 F. Supp., 1341 (EDNC., 1976) that Southeastern Community College in North Carolina could deny admission to a student on the basis that she had a severe hearing disability. The court ruled that "admission to a state community college is a privilege not a property right." This was a nursing program and the Court reasoned that it was appropriate to limit persons with handicaps from programs if the handicap were such that it would not enable the person to engage effectively in the activity after graduation. However, on appeal, the Appellate Court ruled in favor of Davis, claiming that the college had no right to deny someone on the basis of qualifications needed at the end of a program. This case was selected for hearing by the U.S. Supreme Court in 1978.

A case in Virginia (Kruse v. Campbell, C.A. No. 75-0622, E.D. Va. Decree Order, 1977) involved a number of issues in addition to that of due process. This case challenged Virginia's program in special education which provided up to 75% of the cost for special education. The plaintiffs in this case argued that the program was discriminatory since it subsidized the rich and provided nothing for the poor since they could not raise the additional 25%. The Court agreed, indicating that the Virginia system was in violation of the Constitution as well as in conflict with P.L. 94-142. In citing San Antonio v. Rodriguis, where the Supreme Court indicated that the absolute denial of public education would not be constitutionally acceptable, the Court ruled that the Virginia program constituted "discriminatory exclusion from educational opportunity" and violated the equal protection clause and was "irrational and failed to further any legitimate state interest." This case went to the Supreme Court in October of 1977 which vacated and remanded the case with directions to the lower court to decide the claim based on Sec. 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973.

In some due process cases, the courts have relied on the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 in determining the justice of claims made by plaintiffs. Must a college provide deaf students with an interpreter? Yes, said the District Court in South Carolina in Barnes v. Converse College (1977). The Court indicated that not providing the student with assistance constituted discrimination expressly prohibited by the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 as well as the Constitution of the United States.

Due process has been involved in employment policies regarding handicapped persons. In Gurmankin v. Costanzo 411 F. Supp. 982 (E.D. Pa., 1976) the Court ordered the school district to employ the plaintiff, a blind person, as an English teacher. The school had not permitted the plaintiff, Ms. Gurmankin, to take the employment examination. The Court judged this action to be a violation of the Fourteenth Amendment, and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973.

P.L. 94-142 has extended the application of due process. In Stuart v. Nappi, a Connecticut District Court made some interesting legal points. The court would not permit the expulsion of a handicapped student who had been disruptive in class on the grounds that "the right to education in the least restrictive environment may be circumvented if the schools are permitted to expel handicapped children." On disciplining the handicapped the court said: "Handicapped children are neither immune from a school's disciplinary process nor are they entitled to participate in programs when their behavior impairs the education of other children." What was clear to the Court in this case was that there was a procedure which was outlined by the Education For All Handicapped Children Act which had to be followed. Another aspect of this case was the attempt on the part of Stuart to get the case defined as a class action suit on technical grounds. (This case involved one student who was being expelled for reasons seemingly unrelated to any handicap.)

There seems to be no end to how far parents will go in fighting school officials in defense of their children. In Tyrone P. v. Maschmeyer in a Civil Action in Missouri in 1978, the Tyrones attempted to get the court to identify their expelled child as handicapped and as representing a legal "class," i.e., all suspended and expelled students. The plaintiffs wanted to apply Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act and P.L. 94-142 to the "class." Since the court did not find the student disabled, it rejected the plea.

Conclusions--Some Policy Issues

The legislation and developing case law in school treatment of handicapped persons raises some interesting policy issues. The two major pieces of legislation, the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 and the Education For All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 have themselves created an immense legal problem for states which had well-developed programs for the handicapped. It appears from the case law which is developing in the field that the handicapped have discovered the U.S. Constitution. Even more significant, the handicapped have achieved legal standing as a class. Thus the states with developed programs for the handicapped are now in the difficult position of modifying their programs to meet Constitutional tests as well as statutory tests. Ironically, those states which had been dragging their feet on the development of special education programs may now be in the most enviable position--at least as far as litigation is concerned.

Unfortunately, for those who are interested in developing programs for the handicapped and merely trying to obey the law, there are few clearly tested guidelines. There are no landmark cases. Even Lau provides little real guidance. Taken as a whole, the cases which have been heard in state courts and the declaratory judgements which have been made in Federal District Courts have yet to establish any clear legal standard. About the only advice one could give those who are faced with decisions on the implementation of school programs and policies is to know the Fourteenth Amendment, follow the statutory and HEW guidelines, and wait for a court suit.

The major unresolved issues in providing for the education of the handicapped appear to be:

1. How should a school identify the handicapped?
2. What kind of program will meet all the legal tests?
3. What kind of evaluation system should be used (to "prove" the school is meeting the needs of all handicapped children)?
4. What constitutes due process in any specific program?
5. How can legal challenges be avoided in the classification of minority children?

This is by no means a complete list, but it does suggest the complexity of the issues involved. By far the most complex is the issue of minority children. For years schools have mis-classified "normal" minority children as "retarded," "learning disabled," or otherwise handicapped. This is no longer possible. How to help minority children with genuine problems without being charged with direct violation of rights under the Fourteenth Amendment as well as violations of P.L. 94-142 is perhaps the most difficult problem facing school people. With the best intentions, Congress may have created a monster. Future teachers and school administrators may have to be more concerned with whether they are violating the law and the Constitution than with helping kids learn.

Adapting Educational Facilities To Meet The Needs of Handicapped Students

Waynne James

People with handicapping conditions face a wide variety of obstacles which make it almost impossible for them to be integrated smoothly and easily into today's society. The tendency, in the past, was to ignore or disregard individuals with handicaps in the hope that they would "go away" and not cause embarrassment. Fortunately, increased awareness resulting from more concern for individual rights and expanded legislative efforts have combined to highlight the problems experienced by handicapped students.

It is ironic that one of the most dramatic incidents related to the problems of handicapped individuals in our society occurred when Hugo Diffner, an insurance man from Oklahoma, was unable to negotiate a stairway to receive his award as the Handicapped American of the Year (1957) from President Eisenhower. This incident highlighted the need for a national awareness to eliminate barriers for the handicapped in public buildings and facilities. However, it was not until 1968 that Congress passed the Architectural Barriers Act (Public Law 90-480) that required public buildings financed (entirely or in part) with federal funds to be built barrier-free according to American National Standards Institute (ANSI) specifications.

It is essential that educational institutions charged with mainstreaming handicapped individuals do everything in their power to insure that each person is treated with respect and caring. To do such demands that a multitude of barriers--both physical and psychological--be removed. Rusco (1974) stated it perhaps most eloquently when he wrote: "the goal is to permit handicapped students to move about campus independently--and with dignity."

It is the intent of this paper to accomplish three basic objectives. First, it will identify some of the barriers that exist in an attempt to create an awareness of problems encountered by handicapped individuals. Second, it will provide some suggested remedies for alleviating the existing barriers; and third, it will present possible implementation activities for an individual or a school.

"Barrier" can be defined as anything that restrains or obstructs progress. An architectural barrier is "any man-made device or structure which restricts accessibility to, or use of, a facility by a person." Invisible barriers imply unseen obstacles that limit the potential of handicapped students to be independent individuals. Psychological barriers are mental or emotional states of mind which create problems that must be overcome or alleviated.

Handicapping Conditions

Each type of handicapping condition presents its own unique problems and required solutions. Presented below is a fairly comprehensive list of handicapping categories and an explanation, or definition, of each category:

a) Blind and visually impaired: total loss of vision and limited ability to see.

b) Deaf and hearing impaired: total inability to hear any sounds and limited ability to hear.

c) Physically impaired: total or partial curtailment of the ability to move.

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d) Manual impairments: partial impairment implies difficulty in using both hands to some degree or total disability of one hand. Total impairment means no use of hands or arms.

e) Voice: inability to speak or to speak normally, e.g., stuttering.

f) Size: dimensions of extreme size, e.g., short, tall, overweight.

g) Activity impairments: any sort of limitation which curtails the normal activities of a person, e.g., diseases of the heart, lungs, or forms of arthritis, etc.

h) Temporary impairments: situations in which individuals temporarily restrict their movements. Examples might be: a pregnant woman, a shopper loaded with packages, or a person with a broken leg.

i) Mental retardation: unusual difficulties in learning and generally an ineffectiveness in applying what has been learned to another situation.

j) "Emotional" disturbances: related to strong agitation of feelings.

k) Learning disability/non-reader: inability to read printed materials whether based on neurological disorder or lack of reading skills.

l) Life support: dependence on machines to maintain bodily functions.

These handicapping conditions all create unusual requirements for the adaptation of educational programs. Rather than comprehensively treating all kinds of conditions, the various barriers will be discussed in relation to specific examples and explanations. Barrier categories which will be considered include: site development, entrance, changes in level, signage, public service facilities, classrooms and equipment, and safety. There are also attitudinal barriers.

Site Development

General site accessibility includes such things as sidewalks, curbs, parking areas, drop-off areas, landscaping, and lighting. For the most part, specifications for these areas are derived from the "American Standard Specifications for Making Buildings and Facilities Accessible to, and Usable by, the Physically Handicapped." Sample specifications are provided for each of the following areas:

Curbs

Curbing should not be higher than six and one half inches if its use is necessary. Curb cuts, or ramps for access to walkways, should occur as a natural extension of the sidewalk. The gradient of curb cuts should be no greater than one foot rise in 12 feet, or 8.33 percent. Surface should be non-slip but not corrugated, since the grooves could fill with water and freeze.

Walkways

Walkways should provide a direct route throughout site. Surfaces should be firm, smooth in texture, and level with gradient, or with a degree of inclination not greater than five percent. Curb cuts or ramps should be available where necessary. Public walks should be open and free of obstructions such as benches or other street furniture. Covered walks provide protection in all kinds of weather. While walkways should be at least four feet wide, six feet is preferable. The width of four feet permits one pedestrian and one person in a wheel chair to pass each other.

Parking Areas

Wider parking spaces are necessary for physically handicapped individuals. One parking space for the handicapped per twenty cars, or two spaces per parking lot should be considered minimum. All specially-designated spaces should be situated as close to the major entrance of a building as possible.

Drop-Off Areas

Drop-off zones are essential for letting off or picking up people. Barrier-free access to a walkway to the inside of the building is essential. The width of the zone should be a minimum of 12 feet to allow the car doors to be opened. Length should accommodate two cars allowing 25 feet for each with a gradual access to the main road.

Landscaping

Concern for hazardous or nuisance vegetation is an important consideration in landscaping. Dangerous plants with thorns or poisonous fruit should not be close to major walkways. There should be a minimum clearance of eight feet six inches and proper maintenance is essential to avoid slippery surfaces that may be produced by plant material.

Lighting

Adequate lighting of the site is a vital factor. Five types of grounds lights are available:

1) "Low level" for heights below eye level, usually incandescent or fluorescent. Low maintenance but susceptible to vandals.
2) "Mall or Walkway" for heights averaging 10-15 feet, usually incandescent or mercury vapor. Also susceptible to vandals.
3) "Special Purpose" for heights averaging 20-30 feet, usually metal halide or mercury vapor; for recreational, commercial, and residential areas.

4) "Parking and Roadway" for heights averaging 30-50 feet, usually mercury vapor or high pressure sodium; for large recreational, commercial, or industrial areas.

5) "High Mast" for heights averaging 60-100 feet, usually mercury vapor or high pressure sodium; for lighting large areas such as parking and recreational areas or highway interchanges.

In general, overhead lamps have an advantage over low-level fixtures in terms of economy and more even light distribution.

Additional items for consideration include providing exterior *waiting areas* of sufficient size to allow seating space and protection from weather extremes for handicapped individuals; *walls* to serve such secondary functions as seating, support for resting of packages, and support for physically-restricted individuals; *gates* should follow the same considerations that apply to doors inside a building; *fences* and railing surfaces should be rounded to prevent injuries, designed to support 250 pounds, placed between two feet six inches to three feet off the ground, and adequately identified perhaps by a two- to three-inch curb.

Entrances

Entrances

Entrances are defined as those physical spaces which affect the entering and exiting of a building. They include (1) the approach, (2) door areas, and (3) vestibules between sets of entrance doors.

Approach

The approach needs to be clearly identified as such. Alternative means of entry, both ramps and stairs, are important since different handicapping conditions need different types of approaches. At least one primary entrance to a building should be usable by individuals in wheel chairs and be on a level accessible to an elevator. The entrance plaza should extend a minimum of ten feet outside entrance doors.

Doorways

Buildings should never have revolving doors or turnstiles as the sole means of entry. Doorways should be wide enough to allow for easy passage of a wheelchair. A 32-inch clear opening is minimum. Doors should be operable by a single effort--the recommended force required to open a door is five to eight pounds. No grade change should occur at the threshold. A level space or platform five feet wide should extend a minimum of one foot on either side of a doorway to allow the handicapped person to maneuver the wheelchair while opening or closing the door. Automatic doors are especially recommended at heavily-used locations. Horizontal bars to push doors open (throw bars) placed between 30 to 32 inches above the floor are recommended over knobs, latches or vertical handles which are harder to operate.

Vestibule

Where a vestibule is considered a necessity between two sets of doors, 42 inches is the minimum distance between door swing areas. Both sets of doors must swing in the same direction. In addition, there should be a minimum of one foot of clear width beyond the sides of each door.

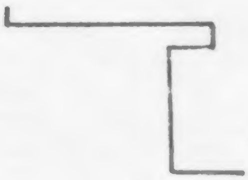
Changes in Level

Changes in level encompass any means of moving from one level to another. This may include stairs, ramps, and elevators. Ideally at least two types of access structures should be available in each level change since different handicapping conditions require different structures.

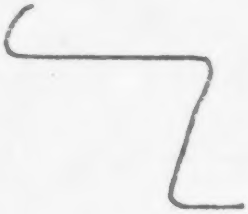
Stairs

Stairs should be designed to utilize the minimum amount of energy and be wide enough for individuals to pass each other. Recommended width is a three foot minimum for one-way traffic. Maximum indoor rise should be nine feet. Maximum outdoor rise, if unprotected, should be four feet; if protected, six feet. Landings should be well lighted with colored or textured warning lines at the top of stairs and at the beginning of the next set of steps.

Risers, or the height of the step, should not exceed seven inches (4-6 1/2 inches outside), while the depth or tread of the step should range from 11 inches to 14 1/2 inches (deep enough to allow a man to place his entire foot on it). All steps in a series should have a uniform tread width and rise height. The nosing or projecting edge of the step can not have an abrupt or square cut. Individuals who are semiambulatory or who have coordination problems will find rounded nosings much easier to negotiate. See drawings below:



Unacceptable
Nosings



Acceptable
Nosings

Handrails should be 32 inches high as measured from nosing. In addition, at least one handrail should extend at least 18 inches beyond the top step and bottom step. Preferably, handrails should be placed on each side of the stairway. They should be rounded or oval, one and one-half to two inches in diameter. There should be a minimum of three inches spacing between the rail and the adjacent wall. Handrails should be able to support 250 pounds and be securely fastened at all times.

Ramps

Ramps provide an alternative route for individuals who are unable to climb stairs. Any surface with a rise of over five percent is considered a ramp. The maximum gradient should not exceed 1:12 or 8.33%. Ramps should not exceed 30 feet. Width should be a minimum of three feet with five foot bottom and top approaches for turning, etc. A load of 100 pounds per square foot is the minimum amount to be carried. The surface of the ramp must be non-slip and kept clear of hazardous materials. Side curbing of at least two inches in height on the open sides of ramps are important to provide surfaces against which the wheels of vehicles can turn in order to stop. Handrail requirements are similar to those mentioned above for stairs.

Elevators

Elevators in multi-story buildings are essential for the physically handicapped. It is recommended that at least one elevator in each building have access to each floor and be large enough to accommodate an ambulance stretcher measuring 24 inches by 72 inches. A clear space with a diameter of 60 inches is also important. The door width should be a minimum of 36 inches and have sensing devices to prevent closing on passengers. The floor should be of a non-slip covering and handrails should be on at least one side wall, preferably on three sides.

Arriving elevator indicators should be audible and visible from central points in the elevator lobby. Ideally, direction symbols of contrasting colors should signal upward and downward bound cars. Red and green are not suitable colors for individuals with red-green color blindness.

Call buttons should be located between 40-48 inches from the floor when measured from the center line of the top button. Minimum size of button should be 3/4 inch with visual and auditory indicators of call attempt.

Elevator control panels should be located from 30-48 inches above the floor when measured to the center line of the panel. Again, visual and auditory indications of call are important. Telephones or intercoms must be located as close to the control panel as possible and must be operable with one hand.

Floor identification should include such things as:

1) Visual car-position indicator above the entrace door in car;
2) Visual indicator on jamb or elevator opening (above car entrance on outside);
3) Audible signal in car to indicate stopping at floor;
4) Raised numerals attached next to buttons and inside jamb to indicate floor;
5) Oversized numbers on hallway walls opposite open elevator door to indicate floor for visually impaired.

Installing elevators in buildings where none exist may involve considerable cost. However, some adaptions can be easily accomplished.

Signage

Signs perform vital functions related to the relaying of information to any person but especially to the handicapped. Signs in general should present clear and precise information. Sign locations should never present unnecessary hazards for anyone. Signs should be designed to be readable by all people including the visually handicapped:

- •••Braille strips placed on sign edges
- •••Raised letters
- •••Graphic symbols (especially appropriate for non-readers)
- •••Located so sign can be recognized and touched if necessary.

The content of information must be concise and direct. Lettering styles and graphic symbols should be bold and simple (no fancy styles). The use of contrasting color schemes makes signs more readable from distances.

Types of signs fall into the following general categories:

- •••Directional--usually included with an arrow, used to indicate a change in route or confirm a direction.
- •••Informational--used for overall, general information, e.g., campus plan, building layout, etc.
- •••Identification--gives specific location information, e.g., parking lot.
- •••Regulatory--gives operational requirements, restrictions, or warnings. Often used for traffic control.

The international symbol for access (illustrated on the following page) is extensively used in this country as well as others. It is used to indicate that special provisions have been made for handicapped persons.

Public Service Facilities

All buildings accessible to the general public must have service facilities to accommodate the needs of individuals. Public telephones,

drinking fountains, trash containers, vending machines, and restrooms should be located as close to doorways as possible.

Telephone

All groups of telephones should have at least one low height telephone for use by the handicapped. Phones for the handicapped should be about four feet from the ground to the coin slots. Special adaptations such as braille instructions, volume control, and push button dial systems are especially helpful for many situations. Since phone booths are inaccessible to the chairbound person, at least one phone should be situated in such a manner that a wheelchair can fit under the phone area.

Drinking Fountains

Drinking fountains should consist of both standard and lowered fountains. Some individuals can not bend down to the lowered positions, but the standard fountain is not accessible to an individual in a wheelchair.

At least one drinking fountain which projects out from the wall is recommended; recessed fountains are not recommended. Controls for fountains should be hand-operated levers rather than knobs or buttons. Spring-loaded mechanisms should not be used since the force needed to utilize the fountain is more than many handicapped individuals can manage. Foot pedals are appropriate in conjunction with hand levers.

Trash Containers

Trash containers fall into three basic types: open top, semi-open, and hinged door. The open top receptacle is easiest for discarding trash--too easy, however, since it is also open to weather and insects if outside. Semi-open trash cans provide protection from weather; however, openings can only accept certain sizes of trash. Hinged door receptacles are hard for many handicapped people to operate; spring-loaded doors must be easy to open with one hand.

In general, trash cans should be operated by a single hand movement; the opening should be approximately three feet from the ground. In addition, the receptacle should be strong enough to support individuals who need support in order to be able to use the trash can, and edges should be smooth or rounded to prevent injury.

Restroom Facilities

Restroom facilities accessible to the physically handicapped must have sufficient space to allow traffic of individuals in wheelchairs. At least one stall in each restroom should be at least three feet wide and four feet eight inches deep (preferably five feet). The door should be at least 32 inches wide and swing out. Handrails, 33 inches high and parallel to the floor, should be on each side. The toilet should be wall-hung with a narrow understructure that recedes sharply, with the seat about 20 inches from the floor. A flush control should be within easy reach.

Sinks should be located with a maximum rim height of 34 inches and a minimum clearance from the floor of 29 inches. Drain pipes and hot water pipes should be insulated so wheelchair occupants without sensory perception will not burn themselves. Faucets should preferably be lever and push-type requiring no more than eight pounds of force to operate. It is recommended that dual taps have such identifying markings as raised letters and color (i.e., red for hot, blue for cold).

In addition, at least one mirror, one shelf, and one towel dispenser should be located no more than 40 inches above the floor.

Vending Machines

Vending machines should be centrally located and readily accessible. Machines with lower coin slots and push buttons are easier to operate simply because they can be reached and because it does not take a lot of effort to pull out a lever.

Table I presents a graphic picture of the relationship between each handicapping condition and identified elements in the environment. Each "X" represents site elements which may cause physical barriers for handicapped people if the situation is not given special consideration.

Classrooms and Equipment

Classroom Facilities

Most typical classrooms are accessible to handicapped students if they can gain entrance into the building. Lecture rooms need to have flexible

Table I
Handicapping Condition/Environmental Element Relationship

HANDICAPPING CONDITION	ENVIRONMENTAL ELEMENTS															
	Curbs	Walkways	Parking Areas	Drop-off Areas	Landscaping	Lighting	Entrances	Stairs	Ramps	Elevators	Signage	Telephone	Drinking Fountain	Trash Containers	Vending Machines	Restrooms
1. Visual	X	X		X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X				
2. Hearing						X	X			X		X				
3. Physical	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
4. Manual							X			X		X	X	X	X	X
5. Voice												X				
6. Size							X	X				X	X			X
7. Activity		X	X		X		X	X	X					X		X
8. Temporary	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
9. Mental Retardation							X			X	X	X				
10. Emotional			X				X			X	X	X				
11. Learning Disability/ Nonreader			X				X			X	X	X			X	
12. Life Support	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

X areas where environmental elements cause physical barriers.

seating arrangements, movable furniture, and plenty of aisle space for maneuverability. Protruding obstacles must be kept to a minimum. High traction surfacing on pathways provides tactile cues for the blind and more secure footing for those with limited mobility.

Laboratory and/or work facilities cause special problems for handicapped students. Generally, study carrels and work stations are inaccessible to wheelchair students because of inadequate leg clearance. Access to equipment and/or controls is largely impossible because no adjustments have been provided in terms of reach or strength needed to operate.

Flexibility in designing instructional facilities is of vital importance to accommodate the unique problems of handicapped students. Such things as class size, choice of colors, selection of surface materials, arrangement of furniture and aisle space will determine the most effective utilization of the facilities.

Equipment

Regular tools, equipment, and materials should be used whenever possible. If a student is being prepared for a job in the "real world," conventional, as opposed to specially designed, equipment may be all that is available to him/her (Phelps, et al., 1978).

Four general types of equipment exist:

1) Standard unmodified school equipment;

2) Standard equipment that has been modified;

3) Specially designed, commercially available equipment;

4) Specially adapted equipment for individual students.

Sample suggestions for modifying equipment for the handicapped are reprinted from Phelps and Lutz (1977). As they note, it is important to remember that equipment modifications must be based on the individual needs of each student and that even similar conditions require different adjustments.

For the hearing impaired:

- ···A red light next to a switch, indicating when the machine is in operation;
- ···Bells connected to a light that turns on when the bell rings (p. 308).

For the visually impaired:

- ···Auditory rather than visual warning signals;
- ···Control dials and switches that are easily accessible. Tactile rather than visual marking;
- ···Guard plates on power equipment (p. 308).

For the physically handicapped:

- ···Guard plates on power equipment;
- ···Hand controls added for machines with foot control;
- ···Semistationary equipment on variable height bases;
- ···Light-weight hand tools or tools with large handles for use by students with weak hands (p. 309).

Life Safety

Certain minimal and various major adjustments in the physical environment can be made for everyday, usual activities, but what about emergency, or unusual situations? There is very little awareness of the problems faced by handicapped individuals in emergencies (AIA, Education, p. 2). The variety of emergency situations which must be considered include: fire, earthquake, flood, nuclear, extreme winds, and power failure. All of these situations create safety problems for the handicapped as well as the non-handicapped individual. Unfortunately, the protection and safety of the handicapped person creates some unique considerations relating to philosophy, building design, product development, and equipment availability.

Philosophy

According to a draft of a workshop conducted by the American Institute of Architects (AIA) Research Corporation and the Task Force on Life Safety and the Handicapped sponsored by the U.S. Fire Administration (1979), "There exists at present no consensus on the philosophy that should underlie codes and standards responsive to the life safety needs of handicapped individuals." However, some of the important and valid issues which the workshop participants feel warrant further consideration are:

1) Non-discrimination in safety measures (identical safety). Safety measures should be the same for both handicapped and able-bodied individuals.
2) Equivalent safety. The handicapped should be as safe from life-threatening conditions as the able-bodied. There may be different strategies for providing safety for the handicapped but these strategies must have a probability of providing safety to the handicapped equivalent to that of the strategies for the able-bodied.
3) No detriment to the freedom of the general public. Life safety measures for the handicapped should not increase life safety threats to the able-bodied. Instead, measures for handicapped individuals should be designed to increase the general public's safety.
4) Highest risk/least ability criterion. Safety measures should be designed to provide adequate protection for individuals with the least capability for self-protection.

5) Right to risk. Handicapped individuals should be as free to accept risks as their able-bodied counterparts. Denying the handicapped access to facilities open to the general public is unacceptable as a safety measure.

6) Right to information. Handicapped individuals should have access to the information necessary to determine their level of risk, in light of their specific handicaps, in different building types. (AIA Codes and Standards, p. 3)

Building Design

In concern for the safety of the handicapped, basic concepts needed in building design are much the same as those for protection of the able-bodied. Building designers must plan for the (1) management of the emergency situation (i.e., containment of a fire); (2) movement within the building by occupants; (3) evacuation of the occupants; or a combination of these. "To consider the handicapped _en masse_ is an exercise in futility. The needs of the wheelchair patient are different from those of the deaf, the blind, the aged . . ." (AIA Building Design, p. 2).

The following points are essential in designing buildings with the fewest barriers and/or potential threats to the life safety of the handicapped:

•••The most desirable solutions are those which leave the greatest number of options open for as long as possible. This refers to questions which were raised about the fact that two means of egress are required for the able-bodied, yet usually there is only one for handicapped individuals.

•••Building solutions cannot depend solely on the education of the individuals who will be involved in the building. The solutions must be readily comprehensible to anyone without special training; it is ridiculous and unrealistic to expect that people will be adequately trained in how a particular building works.

> ...Circumstances must be identified in which the responses of the handicapped are as possible, and just as effective, as those of the able-bodied (p. 9).

Product Development

Products which provide life-saving measures are in various stages of development and/or availability. In general, the level of development of sophisticated products outweighs the awareness and utilization of these products by the general public (AIA, Products, P. 2).

Three general processes are important to safety procedures: notification, action, and accounting. Notification, or the communication phase, consists of two separate functions: (a) of potential victims that an emergency is occurring and (b) a service for help, or the request for assistance by threatened persons. Action, or the doing phase, includes three possible activities: (a) *in-place defense*, or protection at the spot where the individual is located; (b) *safe area*, or movement to a part of the building which can serve as a protective spot or haven; and (c) evacuation, or the leaving of the life-threatening situation. *After action accounting*, or the check-up phase, requires a system for checking on individuals after and/or during the emergency situation.

Sample products available for each life safety process are:

1) Notification of potential victims: smoke detector/sound sensor/ motor vibrator alarm systems; heat detectors.
2) Request for help: programmed telephones, cassettes, porta-tels.
3) In-place defense: small halon extinguishers, 5-minute air capsules.
4) Safe area: electrical magnetic door hardware (cuts off electricity), lights and auxiliary power in areas of refuge or stairwells.

5) Evacuation: ramps, inflatable socks, chutes, talking lights.

6) After action accounting: nothing available beyond roll calls (AIA, Products, p. 5).

Table II presents information relating handicapping conditions to the life safety procedures most in need of product development. The squares with X's represent those areas identified by the Products Workshop participants as having the greatest need for new products (AIA, Products, p. 10).

Emergency Equipment

The labeling and positioning of emergency equipment is of vital importance. Simple adaptation, such as the lowering of emergency phones, alarms, and fire extinguishers, can be easily accomplished. Oversized signs can be used to indicate the location of emergency equipment and/or exits. Warning systems with visual as well as auditory components will serve both the hearing and visually handicapped.

Invisible Barriers

Although this paper has been looking at architectural barriers as they apply to handicapped students, the greatest barriers are not architectural but are actually invisible barriers. Attitudinal barriers, both on the part of teachers and students as well as handicapped persons themselves, present the greatest obstacles which have to be overcome in the integrating, or mainstreaming, of handicapped students. Physical facilities are easy to change in comparison to the changing of beliefs, values, and attitudes towards something.

Attitudes represent positive or negative reactions, accompanied by specific beliefs. There are two sides to the attitude phenomenon. First,

HANDICAPPING CONDITIONS MOST IN NEED OF PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT BY LIFE SAFETY PROCESS

Handicapping Condition	Notification of victims	Request for help	In place Defense	Safe area	Evacuation	After action accounting
1. Visual		X	X		X	X
2. Hearing	X	X			X	X
3. Physical		X			X	X
4. Manual		X			X	X
5. Voice		X				X
6. Size		X			X	X
7. Activity		X			X	X
8. Temporary						X
9. Mental		X			X	X
10. Emotional					X	X
11. Learning Disabled/ Nonreader						X
12. Life Support			X	X	X	X

X = Areas identified as greatest need for product development.

there is the attitude of the person having the handicap, and second, the attitude of other persons toward the handicapped.

Attitudinal barriers can be defined as "a way of thinking or feeling resulting in behavior that limits the potential of disabled people to be independent individuals." (Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute, undated) Words such as those listed below are often used in association with or in definitions of attitudinal barriers as related to the handicapped:

Prejudice
Ignorance
Fear
Insensitivity
Bigotry
Stereotyping
Misconception

Discrimination
Dislike
Invisibility
Insecurity
Discomfort
Condescension
Intolerance

Unfortunately, attitudinal barriers are often unrecognized. Awareness of problems associated with handicapping conditions can go a long way toward alleviating the ignorance and prejudices associated with handicaps.

According to Darrell Smith and Roger Chambers, the greatest attitudinal barriers are:

1) the acceptance of handicapped individuals as people who are no different than the non-handicapped;

2) Realization that there are time and effort problems that do exist.

Accepting the fact that common activities such as dressing or taking a test consume much time for a handicapped person is the first step. Simple remedies such as allowing more time to take a test (three hours instead of one) or making alternative arrangements for office hours if the office is not accessible, provide needed relief and support for the handicapped.

Implementation Activities

To this point in the paper, a variety of barriers have been identified and some possible changes, or remedies, have been presented. The remainder of the paper will highlight one approach for assessing a school's facilities, identify some specific actions an individual can take, and finally, list ideas for the involvement of the College of Education at Oklahoma State University related to this topic.

Assessment

An "Assessment Team" could be created to evaluate the current status of the physical facilities of a school and make recommendations for improvement. This team might include the following types of persons:

a) An individual familiar with architectural barriers and ways to alleviate them;

b) Faculty or staff affected by any proposed changes;

c) An architect/contractor representative able to estimate costs and effort required to make changes.

The responsibility of the Assessment Team would be to consider the existing facilities in relation to recommended specifications. Each of these steps is essential in completing the project:

1) Enlist the cooperation of the faculty and/or staff to be affected by any changes;
2) Develop a systematic plan for conducting the assessment;
3) Conduct the assessment;
4) Make recommendations for adapting and/or eliminating the barriers (Dahl, Appleby, and Lipc, 1978).

Two sample assessment forms are presented in Appendices A and B. Both consider only some of the possible barriers. However, they provide a starting point for the development of a systematic plan.

If the primary intent of the assessment is to improve the environment for particular students, the following suggestions related to the composition of the team, in addition to the ideas presented above, should prove effective:

a) Include someone familiar with specific handicapping conditions;

b) Involve students and/or parents directly.

In an effort to overcome barriers, the process to be utilized would include these steps:

1) Identify potential problem areas and suggest tentative solutions;

2) Gather additional and/or supportive information;

3) Consider safety factors that might arise;

4) Decide on courses of action and ways to implement them.

See Appendix C for sample key questions to ask when assessing barriers related to physical, visual, speech and auditory, and intellectual demands. These merely provide some guidelines to consider when selecting and/or adapting equipment.

Individual Action

The seven ideas below are quoted directly from The Invisible Battle: Attitudes Toward Disability. They are stated more effectively and succinctly than I can rewrite them.

When you Meet a Disabled Person ...

1) Offer help but wait until it is accepted before giving it. Offering assistance to someone is only polite behavior. Giving help before it is accepted is rude. It can sometimes be unsafe, as when you grab the arm of someone using a crutch and the person loses his balance.

2) Accept the fact that a disability exists. Not acknowledging a disability is similar to ignoring someone's sex or height. But to ask personal questions regarding the disability would be inappropriate until a closer relationship develops in which personal questions are more naturally asked.

3) Talk directly to a disabled person, not to someone accompanying them. To ignore a person's existence in a group is very

insensitive and it is always rude for two people to discuss a third person who is also present.

4) Don't park your car in a parking place which is specially designated for use by disabled people. These places are reserved out of necessity, not convenience. Some disabled people cannot walk distances, others need extra space in order to get wheelchairs in and out of the car. If you park in a handicapped space it may be convenient for you but totally prohibiting for disabled people.

5) Treat a disabled person as a healthy person. Because an individual has a functional limitation does not mean the individual is sick. Some disabilities have no accompanying health problems.

6) Don't assume that a lack of response indicates rudeness. In some cases a disabled person may seem to react to situations in an unconventional manner or may appear to be ignoring you. Consider that the individual may have a hearing impairment or other disability which may affect social or motor skills.

7) Keep in mind that disabled people have the same activities of daily living as you do. Many persons with disabilities find it almost impossible to get a cab to stop for them or to have a clerk wait on them in stores. Remember that disabled individuals are customers and patrons, and deserve equal attention when shopping, dining, or traveling (Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute, p. 2).

OSU Involvement

During the course of writing this paper, I generated various ideas for the integration of this information into the Dean's Grant activities and the education program. The ideas are presented at random, as food for thought:

1) The Dean's Project Advisory Committee should have some handicapped individuals on it.

2) Involve students from the Handicapped Students Association in as many activities as possible (e.g., classes); their input could be invaluable.

3) Make a conscious effort to start removing barriers that do exist. Work with the Physical Plant people in making adaptations.

4) Create assessment teams in classes. Use these teams to survey OSU buildings and local public schools. Utilize checklists provided in Appendices A and B or create one of our own.

5) Have as many students and faculty as possible actually experience "barriers" through simulation activities.

6) Visit East Central Oklahoma State University to see what they have done in the way of removing architectural barriers.

7) One possibility for national exposure: work with the idea of life safety in the educational setting.

8) Compile a list, with the help of handicapped students, of some of the activities and/or adjustments that teachers can undertake to help save time and effort for the handicapped.

9) Get input from handicapped students related to any "renovations" of buildings.

10) Request to be involved in the AIA Task Force on Life Safety related to Education--there was no one from teacher education involved.

11) Create a resource center for equipment modifications or listings of availability of special equipment. Provide consultant activities to other schools in equipping vocational or lab-type programs.

12) Conduct a follow-up twelve years later of McGregor's thesis.

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APPENDIX A

AN ARCHITECTURAL BARRIER CHECKLIST FOR SCHOOLS *

Building Name or Identification________________________________

Number of Stories__________________________

Number of Entry Ways (not individual doors)______

Number of Classrooms__________, Shops___________, or Laboratories______

Age of Building (approximately) _____________ years

	Yes	No	
PA 1	___	___	Are parking spaces reserved for handicapped students and faculty?
PA 2	___	___	If yes, are spaces at least 10 feet wide to allow loading of wheelchairs?
PA 3	___	___	Are ramps placed near handicapped parking areas?
PA 4	___	___	Is parking area sheltered?
EN 1	___	___	Are ground level entry ways to all buildings?
EN 2	___	___	If multiple doors are used as wind break, do they all open the same way?
EN 3	___	___	Do doors have an opening pull of 8 pounds or less?
BU 1	___	___	Are floors a non-skid surface (Note: Vinyl or asbestos tile or terrazo floors can be coated with non-skid wax)?
BU 2	___	___	Are there interior ramps to allow passage from one floor level to another?
BU 3	___	___	Are all interior doors at least 32 inches clear?
EL 1	___	___	If there are two or more floors in the building, is there an elevator?
EL 2	___	___	If yes, are control buttons located at height convenient to a person in a wheelchair?
EL 3	___	___	If no elevator, is there an interior or exterior ramp on the second floor?
RA 1	___	___	Are interior and exterior ramps coated with non-skid surface?
RA 2	___	___	Are exterior ramps at least 48 inches wide?

	Yes	No	
RA 3	___	___	Are ramps equipped with hand rails?
RA 4	___	___	Are ramps within the 1:12 ratio (no more than 1 foot rise for 12 feet in length)?
SI 1	___	___	Are sloped sidewalks at least 48 inches wide?
SI 2	___	___	Is there a six foot level rest area every 30 feet?
SI 3	___	___	Are sidewalks at least 48 inches wide?
SI 4	___	___	Are there curb ramps at pedestrian traffic areas?
SI 5	___	___	Is there a sheltered walkway between this building and adjacent buildings?
WA 1	___	___	Are there one or more accessible water fountains in each building?
WA 2	___	___	Do water fountains have hand controls at front (Note: Bubbler should be no more than 30 inches from floor)?
RE 1	___	___	Is there at least one accessible restroom for men and women in each building?
RE 2	___	___	Does toilet stall have wide door (32 inches minimum) that opens out?
RE 3	___	___	Does toilet stall have hand rails (1½ inch hand rails mounted 1½ inches away from wall is preferred)?
RE 4	___	___	If there is a privacy screen, does it allow wheelchair turning radius (36 inches is minimum turning radius)?
RE 5	___	___	Is lavatory raised to allow chairs to fit under it?
RE 6	___	___	Is one mirror lowered so person in wheelchair can see?
RE 7	___	___	Is hand towel dispenser low enough to be reached by all?
RE 8	___	___	If there are doors in series, do they both open in same direction?
RE 9	___	___	Are lavatory drain and water supply pipes wrapped or insulated?
TE 1	___	___	Is there a public telephone with accessible handset (maximum height of 48 inches) convenient?
TE 2	___	___	Is phone wall hung rather than in a booth?
TE 3	___	___	Does phone have amplifying controls for the hard of hearing?

* Taken from material presented by East Central State University.

APPENDIX B

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

The survey instrument is divided into the following six parts:

I. Campus Grounds

II. Parking Lots

III. Entrances and Exits

IV. Interior and Exterior Doors and Doorways

V. General Building Interiors

VI. Areas

I. Campus Grounds.

On the attached map, locate by letter, any of the following barriers:

A. Surface irregularity
B. Incline
C. Abrupt change in level
D. Walk width (4')
E. General safety
F. Other

Note: In the following tables " * " signifies spaces for needed measurements while " ** " signifies spaces for the degree of accessibility or utilization. (X = Full; 1 = Limited; 0 = Lack of; and - = Does not apply)

II. Parking Lots.

	*	**	*	**	*	**
A. Proximity to facilities						
B. Width of space						
C. Identification						
D. Abrupt change in level						
E. Circulation within lot						
F. Incline (5%)						
H. Egress						
I. Other						

III. Entrances and Exits

A. Approach

1. Common level (5% incline)
2. Ramp
   - a. width (4')
   - b. non-slip surface
   - c. incline (8%)
   - d. length
   - e. clearance after ramp (6')
   - f. curb (2" x 4")
3. Other

B. Exterior Platform Adjacent to Threshold

1. Width (5')
2. Depth
   - a. Outward Swing Door (5')
   - b. Inward Swing Door (3')
3. Step at Threshold
4. Non-slip surface
5. Other

*	**	*	**	*	**

IV. Interior and Exterior Doors and Doorways

A. Doors

1. Resistance of door closer
2. Handle height (36" x 39")
3. Handle design
4. Clearance to glass in door
5. Type of hinge
6. See-through panel in swinging door
7. Other

B. Doorways

1. Clear-opening (32")
2. Threshold (3/4")
3. Interior clearance (5' deep by 1' on both sides)
4. Exterior clearance (5' deep by 1' on both sides)
5. Clear area next to door handle (15" opening side)
6. Interior steps
7. Other

*	**	*	**	*	**

V. General Interiors

*	**	*	**	*	**

A. Corridors

1. Non-slip surface
2. Steps
3. Width (60")
4. Ramp incline (8%)
5. Clearance after ramp (6')
6. Other

B. Elevators

1. Exterior controls (48")
2. Interior controls (48")
3. Door clear-opening (32")
4. Clear-opening time (8 sec.)
5. Interior space
   (60" x 60" or 63" x 56")
6. Other

C. Water Fountains

1. Basin height (36")
2. Front controls
3. Mounting
4. Approach (30" wide recess)
5. Other

D. Telephones

1. Booth
2. Wall mounted
   a. Height of receiver (4')
   b. Depth of controls (12")
   c. Chair clearance
      (30" x 21" deep)
   d. Other

VI. Areas

*	**	*	**	*	**

A. Class and Activity Areas

1. Aisle width (60")
2. Floor surface
3. Aisle incline (8%)
4. Space for chair
5. Abrupt change in level
6. Approach to desk and/or
   equipment

VI. Areas

7. Use of desk and/or equipment.
8. Access to stage and dressing area.
9. Other

B. Eating Areas

1. Serving aisle width
2. Serving line height
3. Accessibility of self-service items.
4. Table height
5. Table width
6. Chair clearance
7. Floor surface
8. Aisle width
9. Tray return
10. Other

C. Dormitory Rooms

1. Floor surface
2. Floor space
3. Use of dresser
4. Use of mirror (40" height)
5. Use of desk (24" x 30" chair-clearance)
6. Use of closet rod (48" height)
7. Other

D. Restrooms

1. General
    a. Floor surface
    b. Circulation space
2. Lavatory
    a. Height to apron (30")
    b. Total height (32")
    c. Knee clearance height (26")
    d. Knee clearance depth (10")
    e. Insulated pipes
    f. Depth of chair clearance (18")
    g. Other
3. Mirror, shelf and accessories
4. Toilet Stall
    a. Clearance for approach
    b. Door clear-opening width (32")
    c. Door swing (out)
    d. Depth of stall (36")

*	**	*	**	*	**

	*	**	*	**	*	**
e. Grab bars						
1. height (33")						
2. position (parallel to floor)						
3. diameter (1½")						
4. clearance from wall (1½")						
f. Other						
5. Water closet						
a. Mounting						
b. Height of seat (20")						
c. Other						
6. Other						

Note: In the preceding tables "*" signified spaces for needed measurements, while "**" signified spaces for the degree of accessibility or utilization, (X = Full, 1 = Limited, 0 = Lack of, and - = Does not apply).

APPENDIX C

Key Questions

Assessing Barriers Related to Physical Demands

Is normal hand or arm strength or reach required?

Is normal upper limb dexterity or steadiness required?

Are two hands required?

Must manuals, instruction books or diagrams be referred to frequently?

Must foot controls be operated?

Assessing Barriers Related to Visual Demands

1. Must measurements be made, dials set, or meter readings taken?
2. Must controls or other items be told apart by low relief lettering, color or some other visual cue?
3. Must the student operate tape recorders, hand calculators, or other ancillary devices while working in the lab or shop?
4. Must the student read blueprints, diagrams, instruction manuals, or other printed materials to perform shop tasks properly?
5. Is sight normally involved in positioning, guiding or otherwise using hand tools or other hand held objects?
6. Are materials guided through power equipment?

Assessing Barriers Related to Speech and Auditory Demands

1. Must the student hear the instructor under difficult listening conditions?
2. Must the student use the telephone?
3. Must the student monitor and adjust equipment based on auditory cues?
4. Must the student use slide/tapes or other audio-visual aids?
5. Must the student speak to fellow students or the instructor to carry out learning activities?

Assessing Barriers Related to Intellectual Demands

1. Must the student carry out a long sequence of steps in using a piece of equipment to complete a task?
2. Must the student gather tools and materials from around the lab or shop?
3. Must the student master abstract ideas or solve intellectual problems to complete work tasks?

* Taken from Dahl, Peter R.; Judith A. Appleby; and Dewey Life. Mainstreaming Guidebook for Vocational Educators: Teaching the Handicapped. Salt Lake City, Utah: Olympus Publishing Company, 1978.

Using Books To Break Attitudinal Barriers Toward The Handicapped

Carolyn J. Bauer

Mainstreaming is the practice of providing educational programs for handicapped students in environments that maximize contact with nonhandicapped peers. This practice reflects changes in attitudes about educating the handicapped that have resulted in federal mandates and court decisions. Both require that handicapped students have access to educational and social opportunities that are afforded to their nonhandicapped peers.

While a major reason for mainstreaming handicapped children into regular classrooms is to increase their contact with nonhandicapped children and decrease their isolation, studies of mainstreaming have found problems with the social integration of handicapped children (Semmel, 1979). As a group, handicapped children are not chosen as friends as often as other children in the class. Even though they are physically in the mainstream, they often continue to be socially isolated. Helen Keller asserted that the heaviest burdens of disability arise from personal interaction and not from the impairment itself (as quoted in Baskin and Harris, 1977). While educators can exert little control over the reality of the disability, they can help change other children's attitudes and foster a more beneficial social climate.

These studies and comments suggest that our society is contaminated with negative perceptions regarding the handicapped. What can be done to break the barrier and foster nonhandicapped children's positive attitudes toward handicapped persons? Increased contact with handicapped individuals can help, but teachers and parents should not overlook another important tool for barrier-breaking--the honest, objective depictions of handicapped individuals in literature. Books that children read provide continuous stimuli through their formative years, and latent and overt messages in stories of exceptional individuals accumulate to form subsequent perceptions.

Research on how children are influenced or changed by books is a recent phenomenon. While most studies agree that literature is potentially important in the child's value development, the extent of that learning and its permanence have yet to be determined (Waples, Berelson, and Bradshaw, 1958). The results of the study done by the Berg-Crosses (1978) indicate that the expressed attitudes and values of four-to-six-year-old children can be significantly changed by hearing read to them a picture storybook that espouses different attitudes. The research by Monson and Shurtleff (1979) indicates that the use of nonprint media can influence children's attitudes toward people with physical handicaps, particularly when cooperating teachers provide good models and encourage positive attitudes. The research of Gottlieb (1980) found that in a regular classroom attitudes of students toward retarded children could be improved by using group discussion.

A search was made through bibliographies and library collections for books to help develop positive attitudes toward the handicapped. Emphasis was put on quality literature that accurately reflects the reality of impairment and avoids false impressions. Due to the abundance of books published about handicaps or handicapped persons the titles included are necessarily selective. Books dealing with the more prevalent handicaps of mainstreamed children in elementary school (K-6) are listed in eight categories: visual handicaps, speech handicaps, emotionally disturbed, learning disabled, auditory handicaps, intellectual impairments, orthopedically handicapped, and other.

Reading level designations for elementary students are at two levels. The heading Young Readers refers to children approximately 5-8 years old or in grades K-3. Mature Readers are considered to be 9-12 years old or in grades 4-6. Their wider experiential backgrounds give them the ability to read more mature books.

Visual Handicaps

Young Readers. Stories about glasses predominate in the books relating to visual handicaps. Only one deals with blindness. The foggy, fuzzy, preglasses state of the heroine is detected in a medical examination during kindergarten in Katie's Magic Glasses. The situation is corrected and information is also given on how visual problems cause social misperceptions. Jennifer Jean, the Cross-eyed Queen is a picture book portraying a feisty, determined heroine and her discomfort resulting from the rehabilitation process. Spectacles is an amusing and entertaining picture book about Iris who adamantly resists getting glasses until a clever optician wins her over by suggesting that the right frames will make her look like a movie star. Mike and Sally are the butt of teasing because they are the only children who wear glasses in The Cowboy Surprise, but the situation is remedied when Wild Bill, a bespectacled cowboy, comes to school and explains why some people need glasses. Apprehension about blindness is replaced by desire for friendship as two young brothers become acquainted with the blind man who plays a harmonica and lives in the same apartment building in Apt. 3.

Mature Readers. For more mature readers, books about visual handicaps are told from both first person and secondary perspectives. Two books feature the training of guide dogs. Follow My Leader is a story that communicates the feelings of Jimmy, who is blinded by an exploding firecracker. His rehabilitation includes learning braille and using a cane and guide dog, and during these adjustments he also overcomes his hatred toward the boy who threw the firecracker.

The importance of providing comprehensive assistance to children with difficulties, in this case visual impairment, and how such help can have implications far beyond the classroom is given in From Anna. Quig Smith is a typical young adolescent, who happens to be blind, in Dead End Bluff. He courageously saves his younger brother from drowning and that act signals his independence from moderately overprotective parents. Sound of Sunshine, Sound of Rain is the story of a young black girl, Abram, and her blind brother, who narrates the story. He attempts to help the reader understand how he knows his world through tactile, auditory, olfactory, and gustatory senses. Abram's impatience and unhappiness are partially a result of prejudice that victimizes her. She in turn displaces it on her brother through insensitive treatment. Laura Ingalls Wilder tells of her family's strength, resiliency, and ingenuity as well as love and cohesiveness in dealing with the blindness of Mary, her older sister, in Little Town on the Prairie. This series is unique in looking at an impaired character during the growing-up process. These Happy Golden Years portrays Mary as a competent, mature, and playful young adult.

Steve and the Guide Dogs is a story of the initial failures and eventual success in training an animal to be a guide dog. Brotherhood is a minor theme in the book and it emphasizes the need for better relations between whites and Native Americans. An informational book, Connie's New Eyes, tells of a young girl's 4-H project which involves the care of a young puppy until the time it goes into training to become a seeing eye dog and is then assigned to its new owner, Connie.

Speech Handicaps

Young Readers. A void exists for quality primary level books dealing with the speech handicapped. The topic is considered in A Certain Small Shepherd but it cannot be evaluated on a literary basis since it is a religious parable.

Mature Readers. Realistic characters with speech handicaps are represented in one case as a stutterer and in three books as mutes. The frustrations that accompany the inability to communicate as others do is well portrayed in The Unmaking of Rabbit, which is about Paul, an eleven-year-old stutterer. Muteness is presented as a terrible inconvenience, but only that, in Journey from Peppermint Street. A poor French orphan boy caught in the silence of muteness is the focus of Burnish Me Bright. The prejudice and violence of the villagers are very real, yet Auguste overcomes their actions by mastering the art of pantomime. Insight into the feelings of Agba, a mute stableboy in Morocco, about his lack of speech is presented in the Newbery Award book, King of the Wind. He learns to accept events and tries to make the best of them.

Emotionally Disturbed

Young Readers. No books which dealt with the emotionally disturbed were found for young readers.

Mature Readers. The ability to cope with stressful situations prevails in the books about emotional problems for older readers. The Bears' House is an exploration of the manifestation and aftermath of stress as Fran Ellen and her four siblings try to cope with an absent father and an emotionally disturbed mother. Despite their desperate attempts to carry on with pathetically limited resources, outsiders are finally called upon to salvage the deteriorating situation. Mental illness and drugs are combined in (George) which is about Ben, a young schizophrenic. George is Ben's alter ego who manages to keep his schizophrenic symptoms to himself until family and peer pressures force them to the surface. The book ends on a positive note of recovery. Teetoncey tells how a girl survives a shipwreck off the North Carolina coast. She is aphasic from shock, but with loving care and understanding from Ben and his mother, she gradually begins to improve physically. Teetoncey helps Ben and his mother come to terms with their own needs in regard to the death of their father/husband. While only a limited amount of information is given regarding the impairment, the model of persistent, loving care is carefully described.

Learning Disability

Young Readers. The frustrations of youngsters who have learning problems are presented in two books for younger children. The image of sibling affection, the exploration of frustration, and the accuracy of information presented are strengths of He's My Brother. Jamie's disability creates difficulties in school and on the playground. Leo, the Late Bloomer is a fanciful animal story about a baby tiger who can't do anything right; he can't read, write, or draw; he is a sloppy eater and never talks. His mother assures his father that Leo is a late bloomer and in his own good time he blooms!

Mature Readers. The two books dealing with learning problems for older readers exemplify concern and/or embarrassment about discovery of the difficulty. Kelley's Creek conveys the frustrations and self-doubt experienced by nine-year-old Kelly who is in a special class. This story is beautifully illustrated with marsh scenes of the creek area. The Viaduct is a story of how the presence of a learning disability generates ingenious artifices for camouflage and how the problem may persist throughout life. The central character is a grandfather who has dyslexia.

Auditory Impairment

Young Readers. There are few trade books for the primary level on auditory impairment. The two fiction titles are about girls, and the nonfiction title has a matter-of-fact approach. *Lisa and Her Soundless World* tells how eight-year-old Lisa's handicap was discovered and how hearing aids, lipreading, and sign language were utilized in the treatment of her disability. The book provides good background on hearing and speaking processes and promotes empathy and understanding. A show-and-tell story in which Angela tells how her hearing deficiency was detected and corrected with a hearing aid is told in *A Button in Her Ear*. Encouraging evidence of increasing social acceptance of auditory impairment is found in *A Show of Hands; Say it in Sign Language*. In cartoon-type drawings and narrative text, it demonstrates the manual alphabet and more than 150 signs, while dealing in a matter-of-fact way with the problem of what it is like to be deaf in a hearing world.

Mature Readers. For the advanced readers there is one title dealing with profound hearing loss, two titles about deafness, one book dealing with the deaf and mute, and one about a woman who was deaf, mute, and blind. Australia is the setting of *The Nothing Place*, in which Glen is anxious to conceal the severe hearing loss that resulted from a recent illness. The problem of adjustment is handled in a matter-of-fact way and characterizations of the children are noteworthy. *The Sand Bird*, an unusual fantasy, is about a deaf boy, and the story provides exemplary models for accommodation to the demands of the disability. A realistic and straightforward approach to deafness is given in *David in Silence*. The family's adjustment as well as David's own inner thoughts are incorporated into this gritty story. *Water Rat* focuses on Lani, a thirteen-year-old who, though deaf and mute, is a swimming champion. She is presented as a youngster with abundant talent and drive who functions even though she is handicapped. Information on swimming and racing competition is presented in this excellent sports book. A story of accomplishments earned in the face of great handicaps is told with warmth and insight in the authentic biography, The Helen Keller Story.

Intellectual Impairment

Young Readers. The importance of love and understanding from supportive family is presented in the book for young readers about intellectual impairment. Even though One Little Girl suffers from a lack of focus as to its appropriate audience, it does emphasize the importance of positive attitudes toward a slow learner. Laurie has intellectual and visual impairments and her parents and teachers see her improved response after they stop thinking and saying that she is slow and begin emphasizing her abilities.

Mature Readers. The mixed feelings of brothers and sisters toward their retarded siblings are found in three titles for older readers. Two titles have main characters who have desires for a fuller life even though they are retarded. The setting for two books is Australia and one title is situated in school. One volume is a case study. A forthright explanation of retardation is given in the sensitive novel Don't Take Teddy, which provides excellent detail of a younger brother's agonies regarding his low functioning sibling. Another beautifully written story about a sibling's love and responsibility and how mental retardation affects brothers and sisters is Summer of the Swans, a Newbery Award book. Take Wing has extensive information about retardation and deals with family problems related to denial and community problems of unresponsiveness. Zeke, in

The Jazz Man, is a child hobbled by limitations, untended by either his family or society, and locked into a barren, isolated environment. Despite this, he hungers for a fuller life as represented by the jazz man's music. The main character in The Hayburners is a decent, hardworking, generous retarded man. The message is about how the weak are treated in society, particularly the abandonment of those who are presumably losers by conventional standards. It further communicates how care and love can produce a winner. Australia is the setting for A Racecourse for Andy in which friends acknowledge their responsibility toward retarded Andy. Another book with an Australian setting is Hill's End in which Adrian, a mildly retarded boy, has a modest but important role in his community. Sibling support for an intellectually impaired thirteen-year-old brother is one of the strengths of Long Shot for Paul. Another strength of this sports story is a coach more interested in players than winning at any cost. Jon O: A Special Boy describes the life of a young boy with Down's Syndrome who has adjusted to being a very special child.

Orthopedic Impairment

Young Readers. The books for young readers about orthopedic impairment focus on individual characters and the tone is one of encouragement, hope, and normalcy as the youngsters, despite their handicaps, lead full lives. The problems of daily living associated with cerebral palsy are presented in Howie Helps Himself. A real value of the book lies in its honest, accurate, and direct presentation of the problems of a severely physically handicapped child. Rachel depicts a young child who enjoys life fully and ignores whenever possible the inconvenience of using a wheelchair. An Alaskan Indian folk tale that treats disability as a mark of favor is found in At the Mouth of the Luckiest River when Tatlek, who has a weak, pronated foot, is encouraged by his grandfather's assertion that a good spirit is looking after him. Tatlek deals with his difference in a natural, pragmatic fashion.

Mature Readers. Much realistic information about the social, emotional and physical consequences of orthopedic impairments is found in the titles for older children. Several titles dealing with the effects of polio are available. Much realistic information about the social, emotional, and physical consequences of polio is provided in Screwball in which Mike, who is a twin, has a struggle with himself as well as his external world. Mustang, Wild Spirit of the West is the story of Annie Bronn Johnston's two fights, one to overcome the effects of polio and the other of her efforts to protect the wild horses of the Western ranges. The Runner is the story of Shadow, left with a slight limp after recovering from polio, who works on a ranch breaking in horses and training polo ponies. The disability is dealt with as just another of life's problems to cope with and overcome. Several biographies, including The FDR Story, are available on Franklin D. Roosevelt and his struggles with polio.

Five books were found which were about handicaps involving legs or feet. A castle in thirteenth-century England is the setting for the Newbery Medal winner, The Door in the Wall. It describes Robin, who is unable to walk, and his rescue by Brother Luke. Robin's rehabilitation is gradual, natural, and believable, and the theme of the story is that one should make the best of what one has and be ready when the doors of opportunity open. The theme that all are useful and needed by the community is portrayed in The Wheel on the School, where a legless man, Janus, ingeniously saves two townspeople, rescues some storks, and readies a nesting base for the great birds. The theme for Turn the Next Corner is imprisonment of two types. The first is a boy's reaction to his father's incarceration and secondly, the paralyzed state of the boy's friend. The message in Red Eagle is a simple one: There is no disgrace in failing, only in not trying. The young Sioux Indian boy, who has a club foot, is disparaged for his imperfect physique, but once he proves himself, his companions can see beyond the impairment to the qualities the wise man of the tribe has noted all along. A hardworking, caring, black family that is exceptionally poor provides the focus in Roosevelt Grady. Matthew, one of the children, has a club foot, but the family has neither money nor time from the migrant father's schedule for rehabilitation of the crippled foot. A scheme for permanence in the father's employment and hope for Matthew's rehabilitation evolves in this title which is rich in the expression of loving family feelings.

Cerebral palsy is considered in four books. A recent title that deals with understanding of both orthopedic and intellectual impairment is The Alfred Summer. Through the thoughts of thirteen-year-old Lester, a cerebral palsy victim whose handicap includes deficiency in articulation, the reader learns of the crippling effect of overprotectiveness by a parent. His friendship with Alfred, who is retarded, Myron, who is overgrown and clumsy, and Claire, a tough, non-comformist girl who accepts them all as they are, helps him to emerge from an emotional prison. The physical and psychological adaptations necessary when leaving the protected environment of a special school for a public school are explored in Mine for Keeps. Sal, who has cerebral palsy, adjusts well in the regular class. Another disability is brought into the story through a character who has had rheumatic fever and cannot attend school. Readers may also be interested in the sequel, Spring Begins in March. An accurate and moving account of cerebral palsy is found in Let the Balloon Go which centers around a twelve-year-old boy's overpowering need to assert himself and to prove the emptiness of the other children's derogatory opinions of him.

The Golden Mare is the story of a young boy whose activities are highly restricted because of the aftereffects of rheumatic fever. He spends a great deal of time with an old horse and fantasizes about an idyllic land where the horse can become immortal. The portrait of a poor family struggling to survive economic and personal hardships is found in The Dark Didn't Catch Me. Minor characters involving the handicaps of cleft lip and palate, a slow learner, and a person who has epileptic seizures are naturally depicted. About Handicaps is a flawless example of a fictionalized problem book. Two parallel and complementary books are found within one cover: a story for children and an accompanying interpretive text for adults. The general theme is that confrontation, buttressed with information and awareness of child development, yields the most promising means for coping with fears related to handicaps.

Other

All Readers. One title is especially noteworthy because it encourages children to imagine themselves in various situations faced by the disabled. What if You Couldn't...? is an informational book about disabilities that asks the reader to imagine that she/he is the person with the disability, and then introduces experiments that help to understand how it feels to have that disability. Hearing and visual impairment, other physical handicaps, emotional disturbances, and learning disabilities are among the conditions included. The direct and matter-of-fact text is an excellent resource book to help dispel ignorance about both the causes and consequences of specific handicaps.

It can be said that the distinctive features of books about the handicapped for elementary school children are that they are generally written about children and the majority are about an individual child. Most books deal with only one handicap rather than multiple handicaps. Almost all of the recent books focus on the handicapped character's positive outlook on life and the great gains they have made despite their disability. Educators should emphasize the importance of helping each child fit in and helping others to understand and accept handicapped students. The most crippling handicap is in the mind, not the body, and that handicap is the attitudinal barrier. Children's books can play a positive role in breaking the attitudinal barrier toward the handicapped.

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Nonbiased Assessment

Paul G. Warden

Litigation and Legislation

There have been four landmark cases which have influenced the thinking of those who wrote the assessment rules and regulations of Public Law 94-142. In Hobson v. Hansen (1967), the constitutionality of the tracking system used in the Washington, D.C. public schools was challenged because the test used led to an overrepresentation of black students in the lower tracks and an underrepresentation of black students in the higher tracks. In Diana v. State of California (1970), the plaintiffs contended that inappropriate intelligence tests were used to place minority students in classes for educable mentally retarded students. The tests were in English and the primary language of the homes was Spanish. As a result of the consent decree issued by the court, several thousand minority children were returned to the regular classrooms, and the Office for Civil Rights issued a memorandum that specified procedures to guide the assessment of minority students. In Guadalupe v. Tempe Elementary District (1972), the issue of overrepresentation of minority students in classes for the mildly retarded focused on the inappropriateness of using only English language intelligence tests as the sole criterion for placement. Lastly, in Larry P. v. Riles (1972, 1974), the court focused on the issue of test bias in the placement of black students in classes for the educable mentally retarded, and, in October of 1979, declared the use of standard intelligence tests illegal for use with black children in California.

The dispositions of the above cases are reflected in the rules and regulations of P.L. 94-142. The most important features of P.L. 94-142 regarding assessment are:

1. Procedural safeguards which provide for informed consent and due process are required.

2. The assessment must be conducted in the child's native language if at all possible.

3. Tests and other evaluation devices are validated for the specific purpose for which they are used, and administered by trained personnel.

4. Classification and placement decisions are not based on a single source of information (such as IQ) and areas of specific educational need are identified in the evaluation process.

5. Inferences about aptitude or achievement are not made from evaluation procedures which reflect the child's impaired sensory, manual, and speaking skills.

6. Assessment must be conducted in a broad variety of areas and placement procedures shall draw upon information from aptitude and achievement tests, teacher recommendations, physical conditions, social or cultural background, and adaptive behavior. Further, information from the above sources must be documented and carefully considered.

7. Decisions are made by a multidisciplinary team with participation of parents.

8. Placement options are selected according to the principle of least restrictive alternative and an individualized educational program is developed.

9. The educational program is reviewed annually and a comprehensive reevaluation which meets the requirements stated above is conducted at least every 3 years (Phye and Reschly, 1979, p. 229).

The Meaning of Bias

Before bias is discussed, the basic myths regarding the IQ (intelligence quotient) should be dispelled. The myths that an IQ score is fixed, unitary, and predetermined by heredity are still held by many professionals. Phye and Reschly (1970) state:

> IQ tests measure only a portion of the competencies involved with human intelligence. The IQ results are best seen as predicting performance in school, and reflecting the degree to which children have mastered middle class cultural symbols and values. This is useful information, but it is also limited. Further cautions--IQ

> tests do not measure innate-genetic capacity and the scores are not fixed. Some persons do exhibit significant increases or decreases in their measured IQ (p. 224).

The use of the word "bias" in the assessment of intelligence can be considered from two perspectives: customary usage and statistical usage. In discussing bias, I wish to note current proposed remedies, where they exist, for some of the problems. One particular instrument, the System of Multicultural Pluralistic Assessment (SOMPA), is designed as a remedy to biased assessment. Although I will note which problems the SOMPA purports to remedy, a detailed discussion of the SOMPA will follow this section on the meanings of bias.

Customary Bias

When a person customarily thinks of bias in testing, either the content of the test comes to mind, or the procedures used during the testing session are thought of as unfair. Also, it is contended that the placement decisions, dependent upon intelligence test results, often have a negative influence upon students. First, let us consider the nature of the content of the intelligence test.

The administration of an English language intelligence test to a person who does not speak English as a primary language is a blatantly obvious example of biased assessment. Either the test should be translated by an examiner or the test should be published in the examinee's native language. Both of these remedies have been done with varying degrees of success. In one instance, a person who was fluent in Cherokee indicated that a number of abstract concepts used in a standardized intelligence test had no counter parts in the Cherokee language. In other instances, the Spanish version of the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale used Spanish phrases that were not easily understood by persons using a North American regional dialect of

Spanish. Not to minimize the above problems, I believe that the larger issue focuses on the absence in many instances of bilingual education programs. A subsequent consideration involves the issue of whether bilingual education is only a transitory experience to prepare the student to ultimately function with English or to continue to function with the non-English language in the majority environment.

The second problem in the area of content bias is related to what is called item bias. Item bias exists when an item disproportionately loads on one specific culture to the extent that persons from another culture have not had equal chance for exposure to that item. Frankly, research is equivocal regarding which items are culturally loaded. The research that has been done indicates that the ferreting out of such items might be a never-ending endeavor. Some items chosen for investigation have been found to be answered correctly more often by minority examinees than by core-culture examinees. Admittedly, item bias does exist; however, the SOMPA attempts to partial out the influence of sociocultural difference from the composite score (let us call it an adjusted IQ for the moment) rather than deal with each specific item.

Procedural bias is also referred to as atmosphere bias in that the testing situation is unfair to minority examinees. Two possible sources of unfairness are the nature of the interaction with the examiner and the kinds of responses and effort required of the examinee. Regarding examiner effects, that is the effect of the examiner's race, sex, degree of warmth, time spent establishing rapport, and amount of encouragement, the results of research have been inconsistent. No remedies offer certainty to eliminating bias, but examiners are cautioned to be sensitive to conditions which might distract from eliciting maximum performance from the examinees. These same cautions apply to the problem that the kinds of required responses and concomitant expected effort might be unfamiliar to the examinee.

As indicated by previously noted litigation, a disproportionately large number of minority persons have been qualified for special education service, specifically for classes for the educable mentally retarded. Research indicates that persons labeled as educable mentally retarded find the labels highly aversive. Contrary to popular belief, it is unclear whether labels create expectancies, and the widely held belief regarding the self-fulfilling prophecy is not supported by data (Phye and Reschly, 1979). Regardless, persons have been qualified for special education programs which have been purported to be ineffective, so these persons might have suffered the burden of a label and might have been placed in education programs which could have constituted reduction of opportunities due to the purported ineffective interventions.

Statistical Bias

Many measurement experts contend that statistical bias is the only legitimate bias to be ascribed to a test. The above contentions (customary bias) are examples of misapplication of tests. Statistical bias exists and a test is unfair:

1. if the variability around the regression line is not similar for both groups;

2. if the level of the regression line is not similar for both groups and, hence, produces a constant error in reduction; or

3. if the slopes of the regression lines are not similar and, hence, produce different predictions for each group.

The results of a number of studies conducted by Jane Mercer (the author of the SOMPA) indicate a statistical bias against blacks and hispanics using the WISC-R. The SOMPA purports to eliminate this statistical bias.

SOMPA

The System of Multicultural Pluralistic Assessment (SOMPA) purports to offer a multifactored and nonbiased approach to the assessment of intelligence. The SOMPA is comprised of a number of scales, each of which fits one of the three models of the instrument:

Medical Model
1. Physical Dexterity Tasks
2. Bender Visual Motor Gestalt Test
3. Weight by Height
4. Visual Acuity
5. Auditory Acuity
6. Health History Inventories

Social System Model
1. Adaptive Behavior Inventory for Children (ABIC)
2. School Functioning Level (SFL), the WISC-R IQs

Pluralistic Model
1. Estimated Learning Potential (ELP), the WISC-R IQs, adjusted
2. Sociocultural Scales
    Family size, family structure, socioeconomic status, and urban acculturation.

The four scales of most importance[1] to our concern with nonbiased assessment are the Adaptive Behavior Inventory for Children (ABIC) and the School Functioning Level (SFL) of the Social System Model and the Estimated Learning Potential (ELP) and the Sociocultural Scales of the Pluralistic Model. The student is compared to a sample set of nationally representative norms when his/her adaptive behavior (ABIC) is evaluated and when his/her school functioning level (SFL) is determined. Jane Mercer, the author of SOMPA, contends that the tasks required in the ABIC and the SFL are common and/or required across subcultural groups; subsequently, separate norms for specific sociocultural groups are not justified. Specifically, Mercer found that subcultural groups' performances on the ABIC do not differ appreciably. She further contends that school achievement is dictated by the core (Anglo, middle-class) culture, and the most appropriate norms are those of the core culture. The ABIC and SFL are vital in determining mental retardation. An examiner would suspect that mental retardation would be inappropriate as a diagnosis if a student performed well in adaptive behavior even though he/she performed low on the WISC-R (SFL).

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[1] The remaining scales yield information which is used to support diagnosis or assist in planning remediation.

The Sociocultural Scales are necessary to determine the Estimated Learning Potential (ELP), an estimate of the person's ability to learn school-related tasks with sociocultural influences partialled out. The more one's sociocultural background approaches impoverishment, the more ELP points are added (in a sense, the more IQ points are added). Mercer uses the example of a minority child from an impoverished background who has a fullscale WISC-R IQ of 67 and an ELP of 130. This child is not considered retarded; in fact, he is likely potentially gifted.

The SOMPA provides a number of data which potentially could disqualify minority and poor students from being eligible for educable mentally retarded classes. If the ELP is used as an indication of intelligence, minority students categorized as retarded could be reclassified as normal or even gifted; however, it is likely that they will demonstrate some weaknesses in school functioning. It is conceivable that some of these students will be classified as learning disabled, but this category stipulates that the learning disability must not be due to cultural disadvantage. Will these declassified students be expected to succeed in the regular classrooms with no special education funding available for support services?

An underlying question yet to be answered deals with the validity of

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the ELP. This index has no validity studies supporting it as an indicant of learning potential. Mercer contends that the only means to determine its validity is by research relating the ELP to rate of learning. Rate-of-learning studies dealing with meaningful materials and of long enough duration are costly and cumbersome, so we will have a while to wait before we can use the SOMPA with certainty of its validity.

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Multicultural Approach to Mainstreaming: A Challenge to Counselors, Teachers, Psychologists, and Administrators

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The concepts of both multicultural education and mainstreaming are slowly emerging into the forefront of educational consciousness. Although mainstreaming is more widespread, multicultural education has come into being among some professionals only during the last four or five years (AATCE, 1973; Hunter, 1974; Klassen & Golliger, 1977). Mainstreaming is commonly referred to as a process wherein students who have been diagnosed as handicapped and placed in special education classes are returned to regular classrooms for all or some portion of the school day (Dent, 1976). Advocates of multicultural education emphasize the necessity for increased awareness and sensitivity among counselors, teachers, psychologists, and administrators that our handicapped students are of diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds. Special education is only one of the many dimensions under the umbrella of multicultural education, while mainstreaming is one process that operationalizes or places both (multicultural education and mainstreaming) into a degree of practice in meeting handicapped students' personal, cultural, and specialized academic needs. However, relatively little in professional literature or practice on mainstreaming deals with students of varied cultural and ethnic backgrounds, as suggested in the standards adopted in 1977 (effective January 1, 1979) by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education and the guidelines under Public Law 94-142 in 1975.

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Brief History of Changes in Special Education

Since the beginning of the present decade, there has been a dramatic reduction in the use of the self-contained classroom for handicapped students. The issue of whether or not to segregate handicapped students in special self-contained classes has been debated since 1940 (Chaffin, 1974). The shift of emphasis from predominately segregated, self-contained classrooms to other delivery systems was clearly influenced by Dunn (1968) in his now classic article, "Special Education for the Mildly Retarded--Is Much of It Justifiable?" The timeliness of Dunn's article had much influence on the implementation of alternative educational service delivery systems for handicapped students.

Since publication of Dunn's article, three major forces have combined to establish a receptive atmosphere for change. First, parents of handicapped children have organized and are politically active (Reynolds & Birch, 1977); second, the federal government has provided interest and leadership through the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped (Sarason & Doris, 1978); and third, civil rights issues have been the cause of the decade.

Development of the Least Restrictive Environment Concepts

In 1976 the Council for Exceptional Children defined mainstreaming and described the school environments most appropriate (i.e., least restrictive environment) for educating handicapped children. Officially, the Council for Exceptional Children defined mainstreaming and, in so doing, described the school environment most appropriate to the education of exceptional children:

> Mainstreaming is a belief which involves an education placement procedure and process for exceptional children, based on the conviction that each such child should be

> educated in the least restrictive environment in which his educational and related needs can be satisfactorily provided. This concept recognized that exceptional children have a wide range of special education needs, varying in intensity and duration; that there is a recognized continuum of educational settings which may, at a given time, be appropriate; that exceptional children should be educated with non-exceptional children; and that special classes, separate schooling, or other removal of an exceptional child from education with non-exceptional children should occur only when the intensity of the child's special education and related needs is such that they cannot be satisfied in an environment including non-exceptional children, even with the provision of supplementary aids and services ("Official Actions...," 1976, p. 43).

The mainstreaming concept was incorporated into P.L. 94-142, Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, through use of the phrase "least restrictive alternative" for educating handicapped children. The least restrictive environment is thus that educational setting in which the handicapped exceptional child can perform academically and socially in as "normal" a manner as possible. These environments range from regular classroom placement with individualized materials or methods to homebound and institutional placements, as needed. It is through this concept of the least restrictive environment that multicultural education and mainstreaming merge in their purposes. Yet there are several crucial pitfalls and limitations which remain within the process of mainstreaming.

Some Pitfalls in Mainstreaming

Cultural Conflicts. It is difficult not to agree with the theoretical notion of mainstreaming, the delabeling of students and the inclusion of those who once were excluded from the mainstream of our education system. Mainstreaming allows many handicapped students, for example, the wheelchair-bound, to enjoy school in attendance with "normal" students. However, others (e.g., Puerto Ricans, Chicanos, Blacks, American Indians, Southern Appalachian Anglos) who experience learning disabilities, mental retardation, etc., and who are further handicapped by their ethnic and cultural backgrounds, are less fortunate. Their diverse ethnic and/or cultural experiences are of such magnitude that counselors, teachers, psychologists, and administrators cannot afford to ignore them. These latter students are often placed in least restricted learning environments with attempts made to instruct within the cognitive domain without regard for their personal and cultural experiences. A fundamental assumption, which has perhaps undergirded this approach, is that cultural values, linguistics, learning styles, etc., are unimportant in the education milieu. For example, DeAvila (1976) argued that: "For the children for whom English is not the home language, there are special considerations and, at a superficial level, one is tempted to conclude that these children are 'so different' that mainstreaming is at best paradoxical and consequently represents no change in the status quo" (p. 94).

Puerto Rican and Chicano students for whom English is a second language have several problems which work not only against the use of current tests but also against attempts to adapt or translate tests. It is highly unlikely that a single translation across various geographic locations would render a valid measure of original goals simply because there are variations in dialect. There are differences among Spanish-speaking groups as well. For instance, there are several translations for the term "kite": paplote, cometa, volantin, chiringa, or huila are based on the country of origin. Regional differences further complicate communication. The term tostone to a Puerto Rican means a squashed section of a banana that was fried but may signify a half dollar for a Chicano (DeAvila, 1976, p. 94).

Inadequate Testing. The process of mainstreaming has yet to resolve

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the cultural conflicts that remain in testing situations. This statement appears more evident as we refer to the testing environment as a social involvement grounded within a cultural context that dictates certain expectations relative to the interaction of students and tests. However, there is no assurance that handicapped students' cultural experiences will be included by the culture that is embedded in the testing setting. Barnes (1973) argues that test developers of the *Stanford-Binet* and the *Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children* have designed these tests with reference to middle-class Anglo experiences. Barnes states:

> For example, one question asks, 'What would you do if you were sent to buy a loaf of bread and the grocer said he didn't have any more.' (The only answer on which maximum credit is given is 'I would go to another store.') This question rests on several assumptions, namely that there is more than one grocery store in the immediate vicinity and that it is a safe walking distance. It does not consider that out of concern for the child's safety the parents may have made it a standing rule that the child go straight to and from the store indicated or that to go to another store might involve crossing into the territory of a gang. Nor does it consider that in some poor communities children are not sent to the store with money because of the prevalence of extortion practices or that credit may be extended the family only by this store. Thus, it is not surprising that inner-city minority and rural children are less likely to offer the response which earns full credit (p. 7).

DeAvila (1976) suggests that we might understand some Latin American students' refusal to guess at answers to test questions where they have been socialized within a "tradition that disapproves of this kind of *hablando sin saber*, or speaking without knowing" (p. 96). Therefore, refusal to positively recognize handicapped students linguistically and culturally is viewed by the present authors as gratuitous and a massive denial or misinterpretation of what we have learned about human behavior.

Impact of Labels. It is well known that students can stigmatize each other as "dummies," "retards," or worse. Other labels often expressed are "culturally disadvantaged," "culturally deprived," "educable mentally retarded," in addition to ethnic or racial slurs. The negative effect of various labels on ethnic minority students may occur in regular classrooms as well as special classrooms. To what extent do these labels vanish as a result of mainstreaming? Jones (1976) contends that labels are stigmatizing and negatively influence students' self-concepts. Ethnic minority students are already discriminated against on the basis of their ethnic (or racial) identity in addition to stigmatizing labels. Jones (1972) has demonstrated in his research that students enrolled in regular classes perceive mentally retarded, lower class, culturally deprived, culturally disadvantaged, and slow learners as negative categories.

Therefore, mainstreaming may do little to generate positive social climates for both handicapped and "normal" students within regular classroom environments. It appears that respect for individual, cultural, and ethnic differences as well as similarities must be part of the socialization process among these students. Such a process may warrant awareness and sensitivity on the part of adults, for instance, teachers, counselors, administrators, and parents. This latter statement is particularly true since students tend to "learn what they live."

Teachers' Mind Sets. Often, classroom teachers know which students will be promoted and which will be retained. Students, too, are characterized as slow, average, or fast learners. Some students may even be judged as bright with a lot of potential while others are viewed as having limited ability. Aside from the horrors of test results that professionals use for ability grouping, teachers' anticipated notions (mind sets) of students' ability or potential at the outset of a school year correlate highly with end-of-the-year grades. Positive mind sets seem to be strongly related to high teacher expectations of students and high performance results.

Teachers' attitudes and expectations that influence students' achievement have been demonstrated by Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) concerning the self-fulfilling prophecy. Some studies support the notion that teachers hold negative attitudes about ethnic minority students. For example, Corwin and Schmit (1970) reported that up to 70 percent of the teachers in lower socio-economic status schools of a large school district believed that their students experienced low motivation. However, these teachers' opinions were not supported in a similar study by Jones (1968).

Hence, anticipated notions, mind sets, attitudes, or expectations may surely influence handicapped students' achievement in regular classroom settings. This statement might be valid especially in situations where students were once in special classes or labeled "special."

Lack of Skills among Teachers and Counselors. The reality of whether regular class teachers and counselors are prepared and willing to work with handicapped students is a major variable influencing the success of mainstreaming in the least restrictive setting. Decker and Decker (1977) contend that "very often teachers in the public school setting are not equipped to deal with special problems presented by the learning disabled child and family, because of limited training, motivation, resources, or materials" (p. 3).

Present research data indicate that the majority of regular classroom teachers feel they are not equipped to teach handicapped students (Chrichshank, 1977). Gickling and Theobald (1975) found that 85 percent of regular classroom teachers in their survey indicated a lack of necessary skills to effectively teach handicapped students. Where the responsibility for such preparation lies remains a question.

Likewise, many counselors have completed their professional preparation without sufficient training in effective counseling services for handicapped ethnic minority students. Limited exposure in coursework and practicum counseling experiences with handicapped students lessens counselors' conceptualization of cognitive and perceptual problems. Such problems are coupled with specific exceptionalities which influence handicapped students' self-worth and personal-social development (Dillard, Kinnison, & Peel, 1979). In short, many counselors' delivery of services to handicapped ethnic minority students is hampered by their limited exposure to a variety of special education skills.

Ocean of Paperwork for Counselors. The April 15, 1979 issue of the American Personnel and Guidance Guidepost states that mainstreaming has generated an abundance of paperwork for counselors. A great deal of work goes into mainstreaming a handicapped student. The burdensome paperwork is generated at the state and federal levels as a result of P.L. 94-142. Wendt (1979) contends that

> each piece of paper represents a chunk of time; time spent organizing meetings, attending those meetings, observing students in class, writing up those observations, making phone calls, and generally expediting the federally and state mandated paperwork up to the next level. (p.4)

A Fairfax County, Virginia, superintendent asserts that by the next school year (1979-80) counselors may spend approximately 30 percent of their time on paperwork involved in screening and evaluating handicapped students. The superintendent further states that such paperwork reduces counselors' time to work with the students, both normal and handicapped.

The degree of the burden that mainstreaming places on counselors seems related to the size of the school, number of handicapped students it serves, the nature of the handicaps, and the principal's policy regarding counselors' use of time. Physically handicapped students are mainstreamed more smoothly than the learning disabled (Wendt, 1979). Therefore, mainstreaming has a number of entanglements to be worked out before professionals involved can effectively function with the process to facilitate handicapped students' growth rather than work externally toward the problem area.

Psychologists' Esoteric Language and Lack of Practical Suggestions. The use of professional jargon, i.e., terminology, does not serve as an effective vehicle of communication between two different professions or between professionals and parents. This is particularly evident among many psychologists who use different terms for similar concepts or define the same terms in different ways. In any case, the use of strict psychological jargon confuses, rather than clarifies, most concerns outside of the psychological profession. Many of the terms are general or categorical concepts, thus limited in their use as practical information for parents and teachers. The use of psychological jargon in interpretations of formal test results and the lack of practical suggestions to classroom teachers and parents have been a major criticism of clinical and school psychologists (Tallent, 1976).

The extent to which diagnostic information and areas of strengths and weaknesses can be incorporated into working instructional programs is often determined by their degree of specificity. Specificity refers to the quality and quantity of details supplied, including directions on how this information may be applied. Stating that a student has "auditory discrimination" problems, for example, tells the teacher little without being related to the materials available, methods used in the learning environment, time of day, subject matter involved, nature of severity, social implications, and various other factors which change from individual to individual.

A one-time conference that deals with interpretations and recommendations of diagnostic evaluations is less than adequate. Often, teachers and parents say that they understand the information being conveyed to them during a conference. Later, however, they may become confused and misinterpret the intent of the communication. In this way, teachers and parents often feel "put down" by some psychologists, thus not following through on recommendations.

Awareness and prevention of these stumbling blocks to effective communication are important responsibilities of psychologists as well as other professionals. Awareness and prevention are the keys to effective educational policies and practices.

Inflexible Administrative Policies. The mainstreaming process in some schools is stifled because administrative policies are too rigid and/or fail to adhere to mainstreaming procedures. Such policies tend not to provide ongoing in-service programs that allow counselors, teachers, and psychologists to share their professional experiences with handicapped students of various ethnic and cultural backgrounds. Other in-service programs do not include or make provisions for these professionals to acquire new skills which will enable them to function more effectively with ethnic minority students who are handicapped.

Some administrative policies do not advocate changes in physical facilities within the educational plant to accommodate the physically handicapped as well as the "normal" student. Current mainstreaming programs are geared toward non-handicapped development that isolates "normal" students from the physically handicapped. This kind of policy restricts opportunities for full integration of personal, as well as ethnic, and academic development among handicapped and non-handicapped students.

Regular professional staffing sessions--including teachers, counselors, psychologists, administrators, and often parents who share facts pertaining to handicapped students' development--are not part of the mainstreaming process. Such information is vital in arriving at new and improved strategies to facilitate handicapped students' progress.

Ongoing assessments of programmatic procedures in mainstreaming situations are rarely implemented to determine whether or not certain goals are being obtained. It would appear that effective assistance to handicapped students who are ethnically and culturally different depends on regular assessment of behavioral input and outcome. It is well-known that long intervals elapse in some school situations before student assessments are made. Therefore, an ongoing assessment permits school personnel to monitor their procedures and strategies and make adjustments according to the output of handicapped students' personal, social, cultural, and academic performances.

In summary, mainstreaming appears limited, suggesting that it will not fully serve handicapped students who are ethnically and culturally different. Other factors must be incorporated into the mainstreaming process to assure that handicapped students receive a full education. We have discussed some of the significant factors, such as culture, values, lack of skills, and negative attitudes and expectations, that limit students' achievement. There is need to permeate the process of mainstreaming with multiculturalism.

Multicultural Education

The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, as a result of AACTE's study for the National Institute of Education, adopted a single standard on multicultural education. This standard has implications for application to all facets of the teacher education and counselor process. A portion of the preamble and the standard follows:

> Multicultural education is preparation for the social, political, and economic realities that individuals experience in culturally diverse and complex human encounters. These realities have both national and international dimensions. This preparation provides a process by which an individual develops competencies for perceiving, believing, evaluating, and behaving in differential cultural settings. Thus, multicultural education is viewed as an intervention and on-going process to help institutions and individuals become more responsive to the human conditions, individual cultural integrity, and cultural pluralism in society. Standard: The institution gives evidence of planned provision for multicultural education in its teacher education curriculum including both the general and professional studies component.

Effective January 1, 1979, teacher education programs in colleges and universities will attain accreditation on the basis of their meeting this multicultural education standard, among other criteria. This standard, however, simply states that the process of multicultural education stems from the philosophy of cultural pluralism. Cultural pluralism delineates and acknowledges the existence of various cultural and ethnic groups and their anthropological, sociological, economical, and political relationships. Such a philosophy does not just acknowledge the existence of the many ethnic and cultural groups, but promotes their co-existence by encouraging respect for diversity. The multicultural education standard is aimed at both accreditation of teacher education programs in higher education and in-service teaching professionals. The AACTE recognized that there is "no one model American" in both pre- and in-service educational programs. This philosophy can best be described by part of AACTE's statement on "no one model American" as follows:

> Multicultural education is education which values cultural pluralism. Multicultural education rejects the view that schools should seek to melt away cultural differences or the view that schools should merely tolerate cultural pluralism. Instead, multicultural education affirms that schools should be oriented toward the cultural enrichment of all children and youth through programs rooted to the preservation and extension of cultural alternatives. Multicultural education recognizes cultural diversity as a fact of life in American society, and it affirms that major education institutions should strive to preserve and enhance cultural pluralism.
>
> To endorse cultural pluralism is to endorse the principle that there is no one model American. To endorse cultural pluralism is to understand and appreciate the differences that exist among the nation's citizens. It is to see these differences as a positive force in the continuing development of a society which professes a wholesome respect for the intrinsic worth of every individual.

What Does A Multicultural Approach Mean to Mainstreaming?

A monocultural standard of counseling, instruction, or psychology (school model) is no longer viewed as a sufficient approach to assisting handicapped (or "normal") students in achieving their fullest educational potential. Multicultural approaches to handicapped students' educational environment require recognition of individual, ethnic, and cultural differences as reflected in their styles of learning, communications, incentive motivation, and human relationships. It is suggested as a goal that the multicultural philosophy permeate the total educational curriculum. Such permeation enables teachers, counselors, school psychologists, and administrators to facilitate individual needs of handicapped students so that they will develop to their fullest capacity. Traditionally, this goal was not accomplished, because our assessment methods based on middle-class values were not sensitive to nor capable of accurately diagnosing psychological and academic capabilities of handicapped students of diverse cultural and ethnic backgrounds.

Teachers applying multicultural approaches to mainstreaming recognize that handicapped as well as non-handicapped students have a variety of learning styles that require different or flexible modes of instruction. Several studies have documented that students learn best through either, or a combination of, cognitive, affective (group interaction), or psychomotor modalities (Bloom, 1976). For example, many Black, American Indian, and Chicano students do not readily learn through cognitive modes of instruction. These students' achievement is accelerated through affective and/or psychomotor activities rather than cognitive ones. According to Gitter, Black, and Nostofsky (1972) and Hale (1978), many Black children tend to be more feeling oriented, more people oriented, and more proficient at nonverbal communication than Anglo children. Kagan (1977) contends that Chicano children are more group or family-oriented. For instance, Ramirez and Castaneda (1974) reported from their research that Chicano students tend to have what they refer to as a field-sensitive cognitive style compared to a field-independent cognitive style. These students preferred communication, human-relational, and incentive-motivational learning styles; preferred working with others to achieve a common goal; desired to assist others; were sensitive to the feelings and opinions of others; etc. These illustrations are only a few examples of variations in learning styles among some ethnic minority students. Culturally competent teachers conceptualize the significance of extracting basic learning patterns of culturally different handicapped students, and then adjust their instructions to facilitate and enhance the academic, social, and personal development of these students.

Professional contemporary counseling literature advocates the need for in-service counselors to seriously consider the diversity of cultural behaviors between the counselor and the handicapped student. Traditional middle-class Anglo counseling methods are less than adequate in providing effective services to culturally and ethnically different students, as expressed in a 1977 special issue of The Personnel and Guidance Journal. Authors of this issue stress the importance of counselors being sensitive and respecting the differences as well as the similarities of culturally different students. Counseling assistance to these students frequently requires counselors to be flexible in their approaches. For example, no longer can counselors' functions be limited to their office or one-to-one relationships. In many instances, effective counseling services are provided through consultation with other persons (representatives of community agencies, teachers, parents, administrators, etc.) who share information and ideas to arrive at mutually agreed upon decisions concerning how to effectively assist handicapped students. Dillard, Kinnison, and Caldwell (1978) maintain that counselors are the most flexible resource for catalyzing ideas, coordinating programs, planning other resources, and ameliorating human relations. Counselors may serve as advocates for handicapped students in assuring close and positive home-school interaction. As consultants, counselors provide necessary information concerning handicapped students' strengths and weaknesses and learning styles to classroom teachers, other significant professionals, and parents.

Culturally competent counselors share their special skills with others to make constructive changes among other school personnel and the institution in which they function. Such counselors interpret handicapped students' needs to the institution. A multicultural approach to counseling requires an expansion of counselors' roles to help integrate developmental tasks of handicapped and "normal" students into the total educational structure, including ethnic and cultural factors, as well as academic and curricular areas. Finally, culturally competent counselors also function as social activists or change agents. They may advocate changes to be made, for example, in administrative policies or curriculum, to meet the needs of handicapped students. For instance, a Southern Appalachian Anglo who is a high school senior and confined to a wheelchair, may not graduate this year because she has been receiving failing grades in English. The school does not have appropriate facilities to permit her getting to the class which is located on the third floor. Administrative policy, likewise, has not made changes in instructional procedures to meet this student's needs. Does this student have the right to attend her class so that she might have the opportunity to graduate as scheduled? This situation may certainly require more than one-to-one counseling sessions. The point to be made is that counselors who assist handicapped students are expected to be flexible in their role to provide effective services that meet the needs of handicapped students.

Multiculturally-oriented school psychologists demonstrate their effectiveness and professional worth as an integral part of educational environments by recognizing variations in professional and nonprofessional preparation between themselves and others, such as parents, teachers, or administrators. They are cognizant of the fact that most parents, teachers, and administrators lack the expertise of communication in psychological jargon. Similarly, there is an awareness of and a sensitivity to the variations in parents' cultural experiences, such as education, values, attitudes, and socio-economic status. Thus, these psychologists communicate ethnic minority handicapped students' strengths and weaknesses to others in simple or less complicated terms to facilitate understanding among parents and school personnel. Clear communication between psychologists and significant others enables the latter to take a more active role in applying strategies in the classrooms and homes to ease these students' handicaps. Likewise, recommendations are provided through practical suggestions that may be easily understood and applied by parents and teachers in the home and school to benefit handicapped students.

Additionally, a multicultural approach emphasizes the need for psychologists to seriously consider cultural and environmental factors in their testing, reporting, and recommendations for ethnic minority handicapped students. According to Tallent (1976), psychologists' areas of concern vary from intrapsychic causes to environmental forces.

> [A] recent variation of [the psychologists'] mission has followed the introduction of community psychology, the 'community mental health movement.' Here naturalistic observation takes on increased importance. Concern is likely to center about environmental rather than intrapsychic forces, since a community model of psychopathology stresses etiological factors that are 'outside' rather than 'inside' the individual. Although testing may not be central to a mission--it may in fact be eliminated or minimized, especially when the psychologist's interpersonal assessment skills are high--psychological instruments are typically a valuable resource. The competent psychologist, of course, can never overlook social and cultural factors, and he must be wary that what he derives from his instruments does not influence him to neglect the individual's unique situation (p. 5).

Administrators or principals have the responsibility to change and develop building climates and class organizations, and to create schedules that permit teachers to be available to consult with parents at times which are mutually agreeable. It is also important that administrators recognize the need for additional counselors in the schools to counsel with handicapped students, consult with parents, teachers, and others, and coordinate activities essential to these students' needs. School administrators can be strong advocates and facilitators of effective mainstreaming programs in their schools. Finally, they can strive to ensure that school personnel attain the goals set by the school to satisfy individual, ethnic, and cultural needs of handicapped students in regular classroom settings.

Some Expectations from a Multicultural Approach

Full permeation of a multicultural approach to mainstreaming will ultimately involve positive understanding and acceptance of multiculturalism by in-service counselors, teachers, psychologists, and administrators. Expected outcomes of a multicultural approach may be similar for each professional involved. Obviously, the depth and breadth of outcomes within our multicultural approach will vary according to professional roles, length of professional service, interests, culture, etc. The ensuing expected outcomes are designed basically for professional in-service development. Our suggested outcomes are grouped under three general multicultural categories in Table 1: (1) Social attitudes, (2) Facts, and (3) Readiness.

Table 1

Some Expected Outcomes from a Multicultural Approach to Mainstreaming

Social Attitudes

1. Enhanced self-worth--personal acceptance of one's own cultural identity as well as by professional peers. Positively accept other cultures found in our society.

2. Recognize that cognitive learning styles vary in relationship to socializational practices and life patterns. But these differences are positively accepted.

3. Reinforce in-service professionals' attitudes that positive effects are occurring in education through application of most factors of

multiculturalism within the educational enterprise. Positive effects will be reflected in various ways such as administrative policies, curriculum, counseling, psychological procedures, human relations, and instruction.

Facts

1. Basic understanding of multiculturalism, ethnicity, racism sexism, culture, prejudice, pluralism, and bilingualism.

2. Conceptualization of bicognition by suggesting development of cognitive flexibility through reinforcement of cognitive styles that emerge from socialization practices and life styles of ethnic minority cultures.

3. Understand major cultural aspects of learning.

4. Understand impact of negative effect of pressures and expectations of the general culture on handicapped ethnic minority students.

5. Understand impact of socioeconomic factors on handicapped students' social-emotional, physical, attitudinal, and mental development.

6. Understand the nature of handicapped students' value discrepancies.

7. Understand curriculum and instructional procedures appropriate for handicapped ethnic minority students.

Readiness

1. Readiness to create positive human relationships across cultures.

2. Readiness to encourage permeation of multicultural approaches to mainstreaming.

3. Readiness to establish professional techniques to prevent personal and instructional racism and sexism.

4. Readiness to foster the existence of individuals of diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds of society.

5. Readiness to integrate activities and materials into the curriculum that relate to handicapped students of diverse cultures.

6. Readiness to design administrative policies that meet personal, cultural, and instructional needs of handicapped students.

7. Readiness to apply various counseling approaches to meet the needs of handicapped students of different cultures who are in regular classrooms.

Some Ways to Achieve Expected Outcomes

Procedures suggested in Table 2 can facilitate achievement of the expected multicultural outcomes. Professionals included in these procedures are counselors, psychologists, administrators, special education teachers, and regular teachers. College and university faculty members might work closely with local school personnel to assist in implementing the suggested procedures.

Table 2

Some Suggested Multicultural Preparation Procedures

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1. Intensive training concerning the nature of multiculturalism within our society; focus on sociological, psychological, historical, and economic dimensions--three or four sessions suggested.
2. Presentations on racism and sexism--three sessions suggested.
3. Intensive training in interpersonal communicative skills across cultures--four sessions suggested.
4. Training administrators in appropriate leadership styles of multiculturalism in mainstreaming.
5. Provide students with training in methods to develop positive multicultural relationships.
6. Train administrators to develop long-range multicultural plans for mainstreaming that include hiring, promotion, evaluation, curriculum, policy recommendations, and community relationships.
7. Provide assistance to parents of low-achieving ethnic minority students with strategies which enable parents to facilitate their children's educational development.
8. Establish assessment techniques that will assist local school board members to understand information related to multiculturalism and mainstreaming.
9. Provide procedures that will enable students to positively reveal their unique culture and heritage through the curriculum.
10. Provide ongoing in-service programs for counselors on nontraditional approaches to counseling and other services to handicapped students who are culturally different.
11. Provide ongoing in-service programs for psychologists that deal with new and innovative approaches in diagnosis, test interpretations, clear report writing, practical suggestions or recommendations, etc.

12. Provide ongoing in-service programs that allow teachers to attain a variety of instructional strategies and their purposes for working with handicapped students who are ethnically and culturally different.

CONCLUSIONS

The following sequence of events pertaining to multiculturalism in mainstreaming may be the process which will result in the expected outcomes: (1) awareness of and need for multiculturalism in a pluralistic society; (2) awareness of present multicultural skills and strategies among in-service school personnel; and (3) awareness of and need for new and improved multicultural skills and strategies. The suggested sequence of events may best be attained through cooperation among local schools, communities, and colleges or universities.

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